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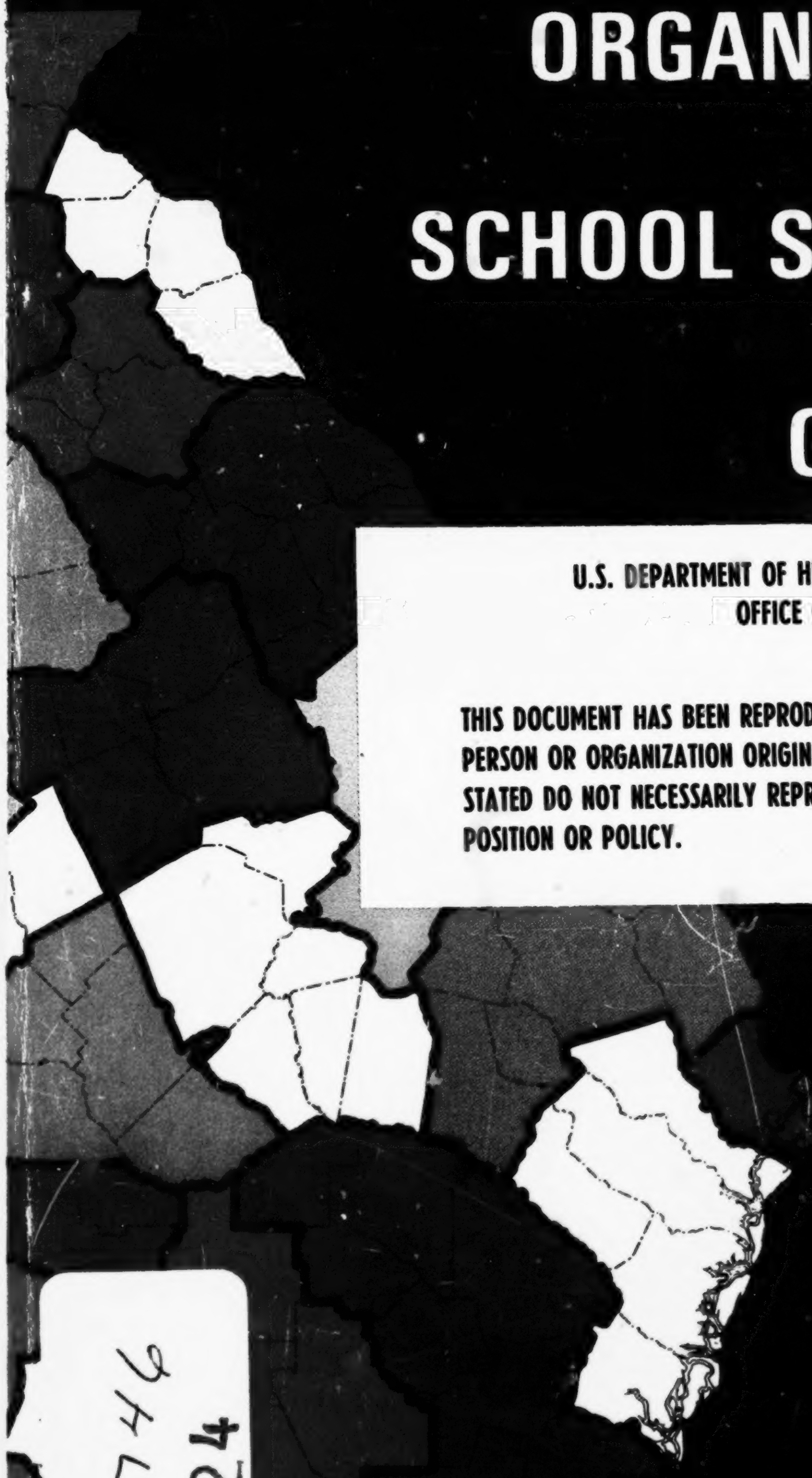
In compliance with a Georgia legislative directive to search for efficient and economical methods of providing quality education for children in Georgia, a study of the organization of existing school systems was conducted. The purposes of the study were to develop criteria (1) for the evaluation of elementary and secondary schools and (2) for reorganization of existing attendance areas, and to compile data on which the proposed suggestions were based. Findings concerning administrative organization, range of available services, school size and cost relationships, current standards and practices, and financial needs indicate that the Georgia county is no longer a suitable basis for planning local school system government. Suggested evaluation criteria, recommendations, advisory suggestions, and conclusions are included in the document. (DK)

ORGANIZATION
OF
SCHOOL SYSTEMS
IN
GEORGIA



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ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN GEORGIA

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A SURVEY REPORT

Division of Surveys and Field Services
George Peabody College for Teachers
Nashville, Tennessee
1965

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SURVEY STAFF

W. D. McClurkin, *Director*
Division of Surveys and Field Services
George Peabody College for Teachers
Nashville, Tennessee

Robert M. Cochrane, Associated Fiscal Agents, Denver, Colorado

Alfred L. Davis, Sr., Retired Chief, School Plant Services, State Department of Education, Atlanta, Georgia

Charles F. Faber, Chairman, Department of Educational Administration, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee

Ray L. Hamon, Retired Chief, School Housing Section, U. S. Office of Education, Fort Lauderdale, Florida

Jack W. Miller, Associate Director, Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee

James W. Whitlock, Associate Director, Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee

Marian Tippit, Editor, Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee

PROFESSIONAL ASSISTANTS

Hank Rich, *Artist*
Norma Cullen
Stanhope Hanner
James Heustess

Sarah Spann
David Walker
Jon H. Walz
Nofflet D. Williams
Robert M. Young

Foreword

The Georgia State Board of Education assigned to the Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, a study of the organization of public schools in Georgia and the development of recommended criteria which could be applied uniformly throughout the State. The goal of the study was a search for efficiency, economy, and higher quality in equalizing educational opportunities for all children and youth in compliance with the new MFPE directed by the 1964 Act No. 523 (Senate Bill No. 180) of the General Assembly of Georgia.

The approved study plan has brought together factual information and data from research literature, policies and practices in other states, established principles of curriculum and teaching, official records and publication of the Georgia State Department of Education, and direct observations and case studies in nine selected areas in the State. The report is published in two volumes. The illustrated digest presents the highlights of the findings, followed by a sequence of Criteria, Recommendations, and Advisory Suggestions. The full report represents the detailed facts and objective evidence upon which the conclusions were based, and which justify and support the recommendations.

The *Specifications* of the study plan designed by Georgia required ten areas of investigation, the findings of which constitute the major portion of the full report:

1. Analysis of the literature
2. Study of organizational patterns in the 196 school systems
3. Analysis of existing laws and legal framework
4. Study of existing policies and procedures
5. Interpretation of socio-economic and geographic data
6. Review of State Department of Education data
7. Study of school experiences of high school graduates
8. Analysis of available data on dropouts
9. Study of curricular offerings and post high school experiences of high school students
10. Study of the financial ability of local units

Superficially, it would appear that anyone exploring problems in all of these assigned areas was merely trying to find fault and levy criticisms. To the contrary, the study was ordered to go into these problems because the final report was expected to include:

1. Recommended criteria for the use of the State Board of Education and the State Department of Education.
2. A proposed state plan for the organization of attendance areas for area schools as well as community schools.
3. A compilation of the observations and data upon which the proposals are based.

The survey staff has therefore been concerned with solutions to problems rather than a search for features to praise. The enthusiasm with which the assignment has been carried out really stems from admiration and respect for the commendable progress Georgia has made and can continue to make in public education.

June 16, 1965

W.D.McClurkin
Director

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PART I

CRITERIA, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

CRITERIA, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

CRITERIA

All public school organization is related to a common goal, but a distinction must be made between three major concerns: (1) *program opportunities,* which are conducted in (2) *local school centers,* which in turn are established by (3) *school systems.* Put another way, adequate systems must be created before adequate school centers can be established; and adequate local schools must be maintained if adequate opportunities are to be provided. The minimum opportunities to be equalized throughout the state of Georgia have been recommended by the Committee on Standards. To provide these opportunities the present study proposes criteria of adequacy in organization.

A. *School Systems*

1. ***School systems in Georgia should be regrouped to provide from 15,000 to 20,000 pupils in total school population in most school systems. A minimum standard or criterion of 10,000 pupils should be adopted by the State Board of Education.***
2. ***No attempt should be made to create multiple-county school systems of more than 20,000 pupils, except to provide services which adjacent small counties otherwise could not provide.*** Once school systems are large enough there is no point in making them larger.
3. ***The designations of "Area," "County," and "Independent" school systems should be discontinued.*** All school systems should be "local" systems, and all should be capable of operating their own fully accredited programs. Thus, there should be only one kind of school system throughout the state: an "adequate" local system without regard to city, county, or regional composition.
4. ***School systems should be governed by nonpartisan lay boards, elected at large by popular vote, and empowered by uniform state law to employ fully-qualified superintendents of schools.*** The grand jury system of nominating prospective members may be desired. Earmarking of seats by place of residence in multiple-

county systems may be deemed equitable; but voting should be systemwide.

5. ***The Constitution and Laws of Georgia should be amended at the earliest possible date to authorize and direct the State Board of Education to define uniform criteria and to administer school system reorganization under statutory mandates.*** At present, school systems larger than a county are not possible, and many are inadequate.
6. ***The State Board of Education should first establish tentative school system boundaries coterminous with Georgia Senatorial Districts without subdividing a city or a county.*** These districts as presently constituted contain approximately 15,000-20,000 pupils each, with a few exceptions, and are legally established and widely recognized subdivisions of the State.
7. ***Next, individual counties should be permitted to petition the State Board of Education for transfer to a preferred adjacent system.*** Reasonable requests should be approved, provided the transfer does not reduce the remaining area below the 10,000 pupil population minimum.
8. ***Finally, State Board of Education policies and procedures should be adopted for further refinement and improvement by departing from county lines and by drawing precise boundaries in accordance with specific local petitions and justifications.*** The present policy of authorizing the crossing of school system boundaries according to established criteria should be continued, and might be used as criteria for weighing requests for the transfer of border areas. Legitimate factors should include local community preferences, trading and economic exchange patterns, more feasible transportation routes, and closer proximity of permanent school centers. There is no reason to seek equal populations for school systems beyond the minimum standard or criterion of 10,000 pupils.
9. ***The reconstruction of "standard" local school systems should be established statewide before permanent local school centers and attendance areas are identified.*** "Standard" schools cannot be established until local boards have it within their capability to do so. School systems must be reconstituted before adequate local

centers can even be planned. Cooperation between several systems cannot be compelled or legislated and is not likely to be developed adequately through local voluntary initiative.

B. ***Local School Centers***

1. ***The criterion for a "standard" high school should be established as a minimum of 100 students enrolled in Grade 12. Supporting criteria should endorse an optimum high school size of 800-1,200 students, with a minimum-maximum range of 500-1,500.*** Area vocational-technical schools in Georgia nullify any educational justification for high school enrollments greater than 1,200-1,500 pupils, though urban factors, including congestion and exorbitant site costs, will warrant some waivers or exceptions.
2. ***If separate junior high schools are provided, at least 100 pupils in the highest grade should be the criterion.*** At least 500 pupils should be the desired enrollment, and the minimum standard should be at least 300 pupils enrolled.
3. ***The criterion for elementary schools should stipulate a minimum of at least one teacher per grade in the highest grade taught.*** Preference or encouragement should be expressed for 2 or 3 teachers in the highest grade, with a maximum of 4. In terms of school size, these criteria would mean a seven-grade minimum enrollment of about 240, a desired range of 400-600 pupils, and a normal maximum of 720. Recommended Standard* II-A-2 would be increased by 1 teacher.
4. ***The State Board of Education should revise its policy of designating "isolated" school centers under Section 17, Act No. 523 of 1964.*** The Recommended Standard I-A-3 should be expanded to provide for the following:
    a. "Isolated" classification as either *permanent* or *temporary*, a *permanent* rating based on location and travel factors and a *temporary* rating with specified expiration date based upon the factor of plant facilities

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*Committee on Standards, *Recommended Standards for Elementary and Secondary Schools in Georgia,* Report to the Georgia State Board of Education, April 21, 1965 (Mimeo).

b. Eligibility of any school falling below the stipulated criteria to apply for designation

c. Evaluation of "practical or feasible" travel to include the potential of small buses and/or express buses.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. ***The following criteria are recommended to Georgia as the best minimum practice known in organizing for public education: a school system enrollment of at least 10,000; a high school with a senior class of at least 100; a junior high school with at least 300 enrolled; and an elementary school with at least one teacher per grade in the highest grades taught.*** Nearly all states assert the need to reorganize their schools and school systems, but none has attempted the forthright approach now being advocated.

2. ***The Georgia State Board of Education should attempt to formulate a "desirable" objective to accompany each "minimum" standard adopted.*** It has been the experience of every state that "minimums" become "goals" or "satisfactions" when they are the only expression of state policy. Act 523 of 1964 enables the Board to express what "should be" in Georgia education as well as what "must be," and its added responsibilities require such leadership. Sections 2 and 3 of S.B. 180 speak of minimum standards and equality, but also of "improving quality," "better efficiency," "improved minimum levels," "adequate programs," "economy and efficiency in administration," and "improved education."

3. ***Official policy should be adopted to guarantee that excellent school systems shall be protected and supported as educational opportunities are expanded and equalized in less favored areas.*** Holding back or penalizing the leaders to enable the laggards to catch up would afford no gain or progress for the State. Many of the substandard systems are adjacent to superior school systems, but the latter cannot be expected to help to equalize educational opportunities at the expense of their own programs and efforts. The use of Section 28, Contingency Fund, might be extended as a safeguard.

4. ***The Board should direct its State Department of Education promptly to apply the Recommended Standards of April 21, 1965, to each local school system in Georgia, and to report to the Board on the coordination of the Standards Committee Report with the present Study of Reorganization.*** The recommended

standards are excellent and fully warranted on a professional basis. However, all existing school situations are not capable of meeting the minimums. Several questions readily arise from the two studies.

a. Both reports agree that specialized services, in the classroom and in the staff, spell the difference between high quality and mediocre or poor education.

b. The *Recommended Standards* lists 17 categories of specialist services essential to quality or adequate education (IV-C) but stipulates only 5 in the detailed standards: principal, curriculum director, library service, visiting teachers, and counselor, plus maintenance (I-B-10), secretarial service (I-B-15), educational research (I-C-22), custodial service (I-D-2), lunchroom manager (III-B-7), and inservice T-V training (I-C-16).

c. The recommended Standard IV-B details "minimum" course offerings which include 1 unit in Music, 1 unit in Art, 1 unit in Health, and 1 unit in Physical Education, for example in grades 8-12. Educational opportunity is not even minimal which guarantees a child or youth *one* unit in music somewhere between his fourteenth and eighteenth year of age, or *one* in art, or *one* in physical development; yet *six* in mathematics. It is not the "six" but the "one" which illustrates the need for more adequate schools throughout the State. Thus, a companion group of *desired* standards should be formulated.

5. ***The State Board of Education should explore the feasibility of requiring every accredited high school to offer at least three (3) times as many units of credit as are required for graduation.*** Thus, about 48-52 course offerings would be standardized instead of about 35-40 as proposed.

6. ***The State Board should explore the effect that local school and school system reorganization will have on staff allotments under Section 12. It may be wise to begin to differentiate between allotments for local and systemwide professional staffs.*** For example, assume that a reorganized school of 600 pupils has been established. Section 12 indicates that 3 certificated professional personnel would be allotted. Minimum standards would suggest a principal, a librarian, and a guidance counselor for this school. If the entire school system is reorganized along this line, apparently the systemwide personnel such as visiting teachers,

curriculum directors, and supervisors, are to come out of local funds under Section 37, or from loading class groups above the entitlement level, or under Section 20 if the State Board of Education determined that all systems should have expanded systemwide certificated staff services as "special programs of education."

Possibly "standard" or adequate school systems could be allotted systemwide staff positions on a formula basis in a manner similar to the way local school centers will absorb allotments under Section 12. Perhaps reorganized systems could transfer entitlements from eliminated staff positions in former small county and independent systems as "credits" in staffing the new system.

7. ***Board policy should encourage adherence of local systems to established principles of administration and leadership, rather than attempt to specify staff positions or regulate staffing patterns.*** Criteria for evaluating local plans might include:

- a. Only one professional executive should be accountable directly to the local school board.
- b. A policy manual should be required, as the Standards Committee recommends.
- c. Local boards should be required to draft specifications for each professional staff position: functions; qualifications; responsibilities; authority; and evaluation.
- d. Related functions should be grouped in one office, and assignments should be clearly defined.
- e. As assistant superintendents are added to enlarged systems, a preferred sequence probably could be expressed: first, Instruction; second, Business Affairs; third, Administration; and, possibly, fourth, Personnel or Staff Services.
- f. Efficient span-of-control should be observed: not more than 4 or 5 directors under each assistant; or 4 or 5 program coordinators under each director.
- g. Staff services should differentiate between services to teachers, services to pupils, and services to programs and operations.
- h. Natural affinities exist between certain staff billets. Each local system should be required to chart its organization through the director-coordinator level.
- i. The State should, by policy, safeguard the right of every local school employee to:
  - (1) Know his duties

(2) Have the delegated authority to execute them
(3) Account to a minimum number of superiors
(4) Know the basis of his evaluation
(5) Have career stability with good work
(6) Know sources of advice and counsel

8. ***Outstanding indebtedness and capital outlay entitlements probably should be inherited by the reconstituted school systems as they acquire control and make broader utilization of existing facilities.*** Larger school centers, particularly high schools, are imperative. There is every justification to support the doctrine that those who use public facilities should provide reasonable help to pay for them. In one test case, it is recommended that one high school serve four counties. In this case, all four counties should help to pay for it.

9. ***In multiple-county mergers, the official county tax administrators should be utilized to serve the reconstituted school system in a ministerial capacity.*** All states are confronted with the problem of an excess number of governmental agencies. Therefore, no new agencies should be sought to service the enlarged school systems.

ADVISORY SUGGESTIONS

1. ***The State Board of Education should initiate requests to the State Administration and the General Assembly for constitutional and statutory amendments to the school code.*** Revisions are required in both the Constitution and Georgia School Laws if the recommendations in this survey and those of the Standards Committee are to be implemented. Among the revisions needed are:

Art. 8, Sec. V, Para. 1. The authority granted to counties and communities to operate school systems within their corporate limits must be revoked if adequate school systems are to be developed for all pupils.

Sec. VI, Para. 1. The office of county school superintendent will no longer be needed, since there would be only one superintendent in a multicounty school system. A single county school system would have a superintendent as would a city school system. Thus, the ex officio county superintendency would be obsolete with adequate organization.

Sec. VII should be repealed with the establishment of satisfactory multiple-county school systems.

Sec. IX, Para. 1 should be amended to delete the words "County Boards of Education and independent."

Sec. X should be repealed.

Sec. XII should be redrafted to provide for uniform tax effort throughout the reorganized school system. *Art. 7* will require revision to preserve the contracting powers (*Para 1*), taxing authority, and bonding capacities of the reorganized school systems.

2. *School Laws of Georgia* will require companion revisions.
   - a. The Constitution should mandate an adequate system of public education and direct the General Assembly to provide it. Thus, school legislation in the future normally would be by legislative enactment rather than by constitutional amendment.
   - b. Since the State Board of Education has policy and management control over the statewide public school system, details of authorized staff positions, prescribed school subjects, courses of study, certification regulations, and similar matters, would not appear in the legislative code.
   - c. In recognition of the tradition, customs, and practices followed by Georgians in their legal reforms, the survey staff can only suggest that the school code be overhauled along the guidelines suggested herein, placing responsibility and authority for reorganization of schools and systems on the State Board of Education. The survey staff does not condone local legislation by special act to exempt, nullify, or abort statewide educational goals for local special interest groups.

3. Judging from experiences of all the other states, the most rapid progress will be made by statewide legislation, and the most drawn-out, reluctant progress will be made by the so-called "democratic" approach giving any local unit power to veto the entire area plan. The most constructive suggestion is that constitutional and legislative authorization be sought to empower and require the State Board of Education to set the machinery in motion and to guide it to an effective end.

4. If the foregoing suggestion is followed, the Board will adopt policies and guidelines and will depend upon the State Superintendent and Department of Education to execute the policies. This implies a chronological sequence of steps. Policy adoption comes first, based on departmental study and executive recommendation. Then, inservice coordination of departmental

leadership must be achieved through staff conferences, study groups, and workshops. Finally, a similar series of workshops might be conducted for state organizations under Section 52 of Act. No. 523.

5. It is asserted in both the *Recommended Standards* and in the present study that school system operations and specialized-technical staff services determine the differences between *quality* and mere *quantity* in education. The recommended reorganization involves the elimination of a number of superintendencies and principalships, but it involves far more professional-technical positions than Georgia has heretofore felt it necessary to provide. It would be safe to stipulate, and conserving of leadership potential to guarantee in Board policy, that every certificated incumbent in existing systems would be provided with an appropriate, professional position in the reorganized systems.

6. Part II of this report presents the facts detailing problems to be solved. When the State Board of Education determines the goals to be sought, then, armed with the facts, an able state leadership group such as the Georgia Commission on Education might be requested to spearhead the action program, and to conduct an extensive program of educating the public as to what constitutes *good* opportunities and what it takes to provide them.

PART II

FINDINGS, OBSERVATIONS, AND DATA

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The major purpose of this study has been to develop criteria for the defensible organization of local school systems and individual school centers in Georgia. A systematic study plan has been followed in the search for sound and justifiable proposals. Where possible, findings have been related to factual data provided by Georgia records. Many elements of quality, however, cannot be measured or reduced to objective terms. Even many of the statistical facts must be related to beliefs and assumptions before they can be interpreted with value judgments.

The survey staff feels that it must explain its position and make its assumptions clear if its interpretations are to be understood. If the Georgia citizen and reader does not agree with the assumptions, then the proposals themselves should be questioned. If they are sound, then the chief concern becomes one of feasibility and practical application.

GEORGIA'S STAND ON PUBLIC EDUCATION

Five specific documents have been accepted by the survey team as the official expression of the State's concern for education. These are:

The "Jernigan Report"

Policies of the State Board of Education

Time for a New Break-Through in Education in Georgia

Educating Georgia's People

Georgia School Laws

From these excellent sources, one can assume that Georgia considers a good education simultaneously to be for the child's own benefit and also an essential safeguard for the State. This is important, because if the State has a self-interest in an educated citizenry, then the State may provide and compel a required education beyond what some individuals might want for themselves. Georgia appears to feel that a better educated citizen can vote more intelligently, promote the general welfare through better civic service, increase his lifetime earnings and therefore his taxpaying ability, raise his standard of living and thereby strengthen the economy as he broadens his tastes and appreciations, and be less likely to be a burden on welfare, law enforcement, and public relief programs.

These goals are also those of the individual, but the State must look to its own needs. If these attitudes represent Georgia's position fairly, the State is impelled by self-protection to demand a level of adequacy or quality in education throughout the State wherever public schools are operated. Conversely, the State cannot justify taking taxes from favored or determined localities to support equalized school opportunities elsewhere unless it sets up safeguards to guarantee efficiency, economy, and adequacy in the less favored localities. If the latter kept their poorly educated youth at home, the problem would be less critical; but, as it is, the mobility of people makes it a matter of statewide concern. Thus, we have a tradition of "local control" in public education, but this is an entitlement that is earned only when the attainments of efficiency, economy, and adequacy are satisfactory to the State.

Georgia seems to have said this in the authority given to the State Board of Education to close schools and to withhold state funds from laggard systems. Thus, local schools and school systems can be approved or tolerated by the State only when each one performs the educational job which the State needs to have done. Otherwise, the school center, or the community, or even the county forfeits its "right of local control" of schools. If this position is valid, three criteria should be considered.

1. *There must be enough children to permit the organization of efficient, economical, and adequate schools if size has any influence on these qualities.* Total enrollment or pupil population, therefore, may be one criterion of a school or a school system.

2. *Schools must be reasonably accessible to the pupils they are to serve.* Therefore, local conditions of topography and terrain, geography and distance, roads and sidewalks, and similar factors must permit school centers to be located where the greatest numbers can be assembled with the least expenditure of time and money. To say that this policy "favors" population centers is true, but no one has a "right" to a public school in his own backyard. Population density, all-weather roads, and distance may thus become additional criteria.

3. *The "local" area must give proof that it has aspirations*

and goals for "good" education, an understanding of what "good" schools are like, a willingness to put a premium on superior leadership and teaching competence, and finally, the willingness to exert the necessary effort to attempt to obtain these attributes. Under these conditions the sovereign State should delegate "local" control of education, and provide the financial assistance required to make it effective. This disposition on the part of local areas can be measured in the kinds of schools, qualifications of teachers and staff, and scope of services that they try to maintain. These measures, then, may be criteria.

It is assumed by the survey staff that the MFPE is concrete evidence that Georgia supports and endorses these concepts, at least as far as minimums are concerned.

ALTERNATIVES IN STATE POLICY

Within the provisions of the Constitution and the State School Code, the State Board of Education properly is given the power of discretion and judgment in the policies it adopts. Choices between some options are clear and easy to make. Other choices are so debatable or complex that there is no certainty even when decisions must be made. Some of these choices are examined as a part of this study.

First, the survey staff takes the position that, once a school or school system is large enough for efficiency, economy, and adequacy, there is no point in making it larger. Thus, state policy should apply the three tests of efficiency, economy, and adequacy, without preference within a county, throughout a county, or if necessary across several excessively small or sparse counties. On the basis of a consistent state policy, then, local areas should be able to test their own entitlements as to justification of schools and school systems. With such a policy, the objective might be to keep school government as close to the county, community, and neighborhood as possible—but only insofar as *effectiveness,* as measured by efficiency, economy, and adequacy, is maintained.

Only partial support for this position has been found in Georgia. For example, Florida's school law provides for the cooperative operation of schools across its own state boundary; but no companion authorization has been found in the Georgia law. The Georgia school laws appear to guarantee at least one school system within *every* county without restriction or limitation. Virginia, for example, has eight school systems made up of *two counties* each. Not even permissive legislation for such a move has been found in Georgia. The closest approach is the twenty-year contract plan between separate school systems. Thus, Georgia is underwriting schools and school systems which cannot justify their existence on any one of the three basic measures.

Second, the State Board of Education faces the option of either expanding state services to compensate for local deficiencies in organization, or of expanding local reorganization to correct the deficiencies. For example, special professional technologists may be needed to serve all children and teachers (school nurse, specialist in audio-visual aids, school psychologist, speech therapist, coordinator of guidance, etc.). But many small school systems and a large number of counties in Georgia have too few children to provide a justifiable case load for such specialists.

Three courses of action appear open: (1) the State can add special service personnel to the State Department of Education staff for deployment through the congressional district regional offices or some other intermediate unit; (2) school systems can contract with each other for a "shared" staff, always a source of contention; or (3) where feasible, school systems can be merged until they are large enough to justify their own staff of resource specialists. If the policy of "local" control is adopted, this last course of action is preferable. It has the advantage of efficiency, because the special services can be coordinated and directed within a single school system in a continuous program.

Third, it is assumed that the population trends of the past three decades will continue. In every southern state the more populous counties have been gaining population, and the most sparse counties have been losing. The State Board of Education is fully conversant with the charge that "to move our school will kill our community." The policy issue is whether schools will be deployed to try to delay the tide of population shifts, or whether no overt effort should be made to perpetuate neighborhoods which otherwise lack enough people, vitality, or cohesiveness to survive. Pertinent to this issue is the State's concept of a community as a basis for school organization.

A "socio-economic" unit or community has been defined as an area with common interests and representing a trade territory with daily commercial intercourse. This was the concept of a county in the beginning. It was measured by the distance a man could travel from home in an hour or two, do a days work or tend to business, and return home in the evening for the feeding, milking, and other chores. If this measure is applied to Georgia's present excellent network of roads and the modern car, then even a county is not necessarily a "community," except as defined by law.

The State Board of Education has acknowledged this assumption in its Policies, section V, p. 9, by defining the daily service area of a vocational school operated "by existing local school authorities" as being "probably within a fifty (50) mile radius." This is sound, practical, defensible policy, and certainly should not be compromised by even lower criteria for entire school systems. The logical solution would lead to the creation of multiple-county school systems, ruling out county planning as the approach to school reorganization. Indeed, the survey assignment suggested that the county was an archaic model of local school systems.

Fourth, the State Board of Education will be confronted by a choice of procedures in implementing any criteria it may adopt for district reorganization. The experiences of other states suggests four possible courses of action:

1. A two-year statewide self-study in Florida ended in legislation in 1947 which uniformly tied the local school system to individual county lines. Earlier, West Virginia followed this statutory course without widespread participation in the study.

2. In Mississippi and South Carolina, increased state capital outlay aid was tied to a requirement that each county must plan its own reorganization. As a result, Greenville County, S. C., established a single school system; whereas adjacent Anderson County, with less justification, created five school systems within its borders. The results were less than optimum.

3. In a number of the small-district midwestern states, county committees plan reorganization *within* counties on the basis of state *recommended* criteria. A United States Office of Education study of sixteen of these states appears to favor this course, but acknowledges limited success after about fifteen years of effort. The survey staff believes that Georgia has progressed far beyond this stage of organization.

4. In Nevada, after a study by Peabody's Division of Surveys and Field Services, public hearings were held in each county, following which the Legislature established the county as the local school system. In reference to Georgia, however, it must be noted that the Nevada county is an entirely different

concept of local school government. The Elko County school district extends 150 miles east and west, 120 miles north and south, and covers over 17,000 square miles—under conditions of mountains and snow that are foreign to Georgia. Yet, its central staff serves effectively the Montello School 100 miles from the county seat. No school district in this county had a staff specialist prior to reorganization.

When one looks to the future, the individual Georgia county must be viewed as too small a geographical area to provide a sound basis for a statewide pattern. If the State Board of Education should decide to follow the extensive participation, self-study approach, probably the Congressional Districts are the most defensible areas in which to establish local reorganization committees. Senatorial Districts are too small, for they approximate the end result rather than a starting point for subdivision.

Finally, the survey staff seriously questions the blind adherence to the so-called "democratic" process of self-determination, on the grounds that it is not realistic to expect local groups to "study" themselves out of existence. We in the South are accustomed to strong professional leadership at the state level. However, Georgia must choose between one of these four methods of approaching reorganization in keeping with her own tradition of progressively moving forward. The choice made will, by its very nature, determine the limits or levels of effectiveness it will be possible to attain through reorganization.

Fifth, the State Board of Education has two related studies currently under way: the present survey of organization; and the study of school standards. In this connection it is observed that states generally support schools which they will not accredit. Also significant is the universal tendency for "standards" to become "goals" and satisfactions; and eventually to become "ceilings." It is assumed, therefore, that Georgia does not want its "standards" to limit the aspirations of its local schools, but rather expects them to be minimums of quality. If so, then criteria should somehow express *desirable* practice rather than merely *minimum* practice. Thus, the "should have" and "nice to have" in quality education are legitimate goals in addition to the bare "must have."

State policy should encourage the better school systems to aim for higher goals, while at the same time protecting those who are doing their best and whipping up the laggards. Florida attempts this with different levels of standards. Some states share incentive support with local systems for the second, or "should have," level of quality, add enrichment funds for the unavoidable "substandard" situations, and withhold support from schools that are substandard without a classification of "isolated." Georgia uses the protection for "an isolated school" in State Board of Education policies, but the definition should be revised.

If higher goals are expressed as criteria, some provisions will be required for exceptions, exemptions, waivers, or deferment when goals are not reasonably or promptly attainable. A truly isolated situation might be exempt without time limit. Pronounced population shifts might justify waivers. Other situations might be given stipulated periods for advancing to improved status. The State Board of Education cannot be subjected to delegations periodically asking for hearings, but it might design some objective method for exceptions without embarrassment to nonconforming units or to imposing upon Board time.

THE PRESENT STUDY PLAN

This survey report has been organized in the sequence of steps which the survey staff followed in exploring the problems. In general, it follows the outline specifications developed in the original proposal.

The first step was to conduct a very thorough analysis of the professional literature, research, and experimentation with patterns of grouping and organization since 1934. Next, the criteria and policies for school district and local school organization now being used by other states were reviewed and summarized.

The next major step was an attempt to identify the features of really good educational programs. Measurable factors of quality in education are reported in numerical terms. Data are included for all high schools in Georgia.

The third major step was to visit nine areas in Georgia to test the feasibility of the findings developed thus far. These samples were selected in cooperation with staff members of the State Department of Education so as to include a variety of local conditions found in Georgia. The results of applying the findings to these situations are reported. In one case the application is to a single county in which three independent systems operate. In another, the countywide school system operates a number of small schools. Another test case was a rather sparsely populated four-county area.

The next step was to survey the financial resources available in these sample localities to determine the financial and cost implications of the criteria being tested. These findings are reported.

The final step was to formulate a series of recommendations which the survey staff is making to the State Board of Education.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE RELATIVE TO SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION

A. ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

Any analysis of the literature regarding school district organization should start with the monumental work of Howard Dawson (14*). Inasmuch as Dawson reviewed most of the existing literature on the subject, no references to material published prior to 1934 will be included in this report. Dawson found that, in order to develop a standard administrative and supervisory organization to be operated at a reasonable cost, from 9,800 to 12,000 pupils would be needed. However, he felt that establishment of districts of that size throughout the country was unlikely and worked out modifications of his plans to present a figure of 1,600 pupils as the absolute minimum size of a local unit of school administration. Although a tremendous amount of work has been done on this problem in the last thirty years, Dawson's study remains the standard source.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTING ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

Several excellent statements of criteria for developing effective school districts have been published. Although the exact criteria specified vary from list to list, the following are among those most frequently mentioned:

1. **Scope of program.** The district should offer a comprehensive program of elementary and secondary education (4, 9, 10, 13, 17, 41). Some authorities include also nursery school or kindergarten (4, 9, 13), junior college (4, 13), and adult education (4, 9, 41).

2. **Range of educational services.** Complete educational services should be offered, including special classes for physically and mentally handicapped, remedial programs for underachievers, special programs for academically talented pupils, and health, guidance, and counseling services (4, 9, 13, 24).

3. **The community.** The district should include one well-defined community or a group of interrelated communities (10,

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*Numbers in parentheses refer to References at the end of this chapter.

13, 17). One author uses the term "a natural sociological area" instead of community (24).

4. **Administrative and instructional staff.** The district should be large enough to make effective and efficient use of qualified specialized administrative and supervisory personnel and of teachers with preparation in all areas taught (1, 4, 6, 10, 12, 14, 41).

5. **Economic base.** The school district must be financially able to support the kind of educational program implied by the above criteria. Statements of economic criteria may refer to total wealth or income available to districts (4, 9, 10, 13), to financial efficiency, or cost per pupil (5, 12, 14, 17, 24).

Most of the foregoing criteria are made operational by translating them from statements of principle into minimum enrollment figures consistent with the standards. Sometimes optimum enrollment ranges are postulated, and occasionally maximum enrollments are suggested. However, much more has been written on minimum size than on optimum or maximum size. Each of the criteria will now be discussed and related to enrollment figures.

Scope of Program

In order to insure an articulated program, elementary and secondary instruction should be provided within the same school district. The minimal program for the elementary grades should meet the standards prescribed by the state department of education. A comprehensive high school program should be provided at the secondary school level. In order to provide a general education for all future citizens, to provide suitable electives for those who are not going on to college, and to provide satisfactory college preparatory programs, a minimum acceptable high school enrollment can be specified. Conant (11) suggested a minimum of no fewer than 100 pupils in the graduating class. Depending upon the holding power of the district, this would require an administrative unit of from 1,500 to 2,000 or more pupils. Most authorities agree that a unit of approximately this size is needed to provide an adequate instructional program. Carpenter (9) suggested a minimum of 1,250 pupils, while Grieder and others (24) maintained that an average daily attendance of from 2,000 to 3,000 is needed to operate a good instructional program in an economical manner. When scope of program is used as a criterion, the concept of maximum size does not apply. As enrollment increases, the breadth of curriculum could continue to increase almost indefinitely. Problems of curriculum coordination could set in, however, as the district went beyond the size that could be administered effectively.

Range of Educational Services

While an enrollment of 2,000 or fewer pupils might be sufficient for a good instructional program, most authorities feel that it is much too small to enable a district to provide the full range of educational services needed. Although Carpenter (9) thought guidance, health, attendance, library, audio-visual, and remedial services could be provided in a district of 1,250 pupils, he appears almost alone in that belief. Blanke's careful review (4) of recommendations of specialists led him to suggest an administrative unit of from 10,000 to 15,000 pupils, unless special services are offered by an intermediate unit. Grieder and others (24) suggested the identical range if a full program of specialized services is to be provided. As was the case with scope of program, no upper limit seems to be implied as far as this criterion is concerned. Any maximum figure for school district size would have to be based on a criterion other than range of educational services.

The Community

As noted above, several writers have suggested that the school district should conform to a natural community, or to a group of interrelated communities. The Committee for the White House Conference on Education (10) proposed that a district should be small enough so as not to lose the advantage of community contact and local control, nor the response to public will. The Committee said that every community wants its own schools and sometimes it is better to let a small school continue than to sacrifice community interest, pride, and support. In general, though, the Committee concluded, it is better to have a good school serving a large area than a weak school serving a small area.

Considerable disagreement exists about the ideal size community. For example, Cushman (13) said the ideal school district is coterminous with an ideal community—a community of from 3,000 to 4,000 people in its town center and an equal number in the surrounding socially and economically interdependent countryside. On the other hand, Swanson (46) believed that communities of from 20,000 to 50,000 people have the optimum conditions for promoting school quality. Swanson's view seems to be more in keeping with the recommendations of sociologists who have studied the community. Blanke (4) noted the many different meanings of the term "community" and questioned its usefulness as a concept for school district reorganization. He stated that the principal justification for seeking to organize school districts around so-called natural communities has been to maximize feelings of loyalty or pride in the schools, but he pointed out that there is little evidence that schools with loyal patrons are necessarily better schools. Nor is there evidence that districts violating the natural community criterion are necessarily poor schools.

That school districts can be too small has been well established; that they can be too large is now becoming clear, but the point at which they become too large still is not known. Swanson (46) found a strong positive relationship between population and quality up to 20,000 population, then a leveling off, with a very gradual decrease in quality beginning to appear as population of the district goes beyond 50,000. Mort and Reusser (35) believed that extremely large school districts—those containing a total population of more than 100,000—often are beset by lack of public participation and interest in educational affairs. They suggested that natural communities be identified within the large city, and that these areas be established as independent districts in order to decentralize the system and, hopefully, to enhance local citizen interest, participation, and control. Bell and Green (3) described the division of Chicago into 16 sub-districts, each serving about 20,000 pupils. This was an effort to put large-scale education on a local level and to give teachers and pupils the democratic and personal benefits of the smaller school system.

Administrative and Instructional Staff

Dawson's very detailed review (14) of data on administrative and supervisory services and cost per pupil suggested an optimum administrative unit of from 9,800 to 12,000 pupils and 280 teaching units. Carefully developed modifications of the optimum plan revealed that an absolute minimum of 1,600 pupils and 46 teaching units can be justified. Other attempts to translate administrative and instructional staff data into minimum district size have yielded similar results. Briscoe (6) stated that 40 teachers is the absolute minimum and that from 200 to 250 teachers or more would be more desirable. Cook (12) suggested 46 teachers as the absolute minimum, and implied that this would be an inefficient, undesirable arrangement. She preferred a district of from 10,000 to 12,000 pupils on grounds that this would enable more efficient use of supervisors, librarians, nurses, and attendance supervisors.

Economic Base

Although several writers have indicated the necessity of establishing school districts of sufficient economic base to provide the funds necessary to support an adequate educational program, no one has translated this need into numerical terms. Perhaps this is because of the widely varying practices from state to state in methods of school support and formulae of state aid to local districts. All authorities agree that an adequate economic base is essential; no one can state with exactitude what is adequate. A similar situation prevails in regard to economic efficiency. Although numerous writers refer to the inability of a small district to provide educational services efficiently, and many authorities refer to the negative relationship between cost per pupil and enrollment, no studies suggest the optimum district enrollment based on cost per pupil. Most of the studies of cost-quality relationships have been based upon attendance center rather than administrative unit data and several such studies will be discussed under the appropriate sections.

SCHOOL DISTRICT SIZE

The literature is almost unanimous in criticizing the small school district. A yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (37) said, "The significance of the inadequate local school unit as a retarding factor in limiting educational progress has probably never been fully appreciated." The Committee for the White House Conference on Education (10) pointed out that the shortage of well-qualified teachers is felt most keenly by small districts, where teaching loads tend to be heavier and equipment less satisfactory than in larger and better organized districts. A study of school finance by The National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (36) revealed that very small districts frequently lack adequate lay and professional leadership and reported research showing that the smaller the school, the higher the cost per pupil.

Alves, Anderson, and Fowlkes (1) presented considerable additional evidence to show superiority of large over small districts. Faber (18) reported a study of 35 Iowa school districts, which were assessed on the basis of 15 measures of quality. The relationship between total quality scores and enrollment was consistent and very high. A correlation coefficient of .763 was derived. Furthermore, each district in the upper quartile of enrollment ranked above average in quality while every district in the lowest enrollment quartile ranked below average in quality. The Iowa Department of Public Instruction (29) studied the effects of school district reorganization in that state between 1955 and 1962. The report concluded that reorganization improved the efficiency of Iowa schools by making it possible to use administrators, supervisors, and consultants more prudently and effectively. There also was an increase in the efficient use of teachers. During the same time period the quality of instruction improved. Annual test data among Iowa high school students remained relatively stable for a number of years, with no appreciable change having occurred between 1948 and 1955. Beginning in 1956, however, average test performance rose consistently every year. This coincided with the period of greatest reorganization. When school districts in Iowa were placed in enrollment categories, the average cost per pupil declined as enrollment increased, until the largest enrollment category was reached, where a slight increase occurred, probably due to the increased cost associated with the large city schools. Fitzwater (20) reported the most extensive survey of educational change in reorganized school districts. His study encompassed 552 districts in 8 states. He found such program improvements as the employment of nurses, psychologists, guidance counselors, physicians, speech correctionists, and dental hygienists. He also cited marked improvements in music, art, and vocational education programs. In addition, he reported that the new teaching staffs had a higher level of college preparation than teachers employed in the old districts before reorganization.

Hamilton and Rowe (25) studied the academic achievement of students in reorganized and nonreorganized districts and found that the preponderance of evidence indicated that greater academic achievement is likely to take place in larger schools. They learned that larger faculties often mean greater possibilities for specialization in remedial work, foreign languages, vocal and instrumental music, industrial arts, citizenship, health education, and other areas. Services in such specialized areas were found to be characteristic of larger school districts and are regarded by many educators as being of vital importance in producing well-rounded children and in equalizing educational opportunities.

STATE LAWS

Morphet (33) has suggested certain criteria to be used in developing laws related to district reorganization:

1. Legislation should be kept as simple as possible and should make it easy for districts to effect desirable reorganization.
2. All state laws should be reviewed to determine their effect on district reorganization. Those which encourage the continuation of inadequate districts or which retard reorganization should be revised.
3. All reorganization proposals should be based on careful studies and planning before being voted upon.
4. The regulations of the state board of education should define basic criteria or minimum standards to be used for guidance in planning reorganization of districts.
5. The laws should specifically define the responsibility of the state and local reorganization commissions and of all groups and persons officially involved in the reorganization program.
6. In all states with a large number of small districts the law should provide for a state reorganization commission.
7. In states with numerous districts, the law should also provide for local commissions on reorganization.
8. The organization law and procedures should provide for the participation of a maximum number of people working co-operatively for effective district reorganization.
9. The law should provide that if some inadequate districts choose to continue as separate districts beyond a designated date, the local taxpayers in those districts would bear the extra expense involved in providing adequate school services and facilities for the children of the district.

B. SCHOOL ATTENDANCE CENTERS

A local school attendance area is that part of a school system whose population is served in part at least by a single school. The school attendance center is the school which serves the attendance area. The school may comprise the elementary grades, the junior high school, the senior high school, or some other combination of grades. While various factors may limit or enhance the effectiveness of a school attendance center, the effect of school size on the quality of the educational program has received the most attention in educational literature. A summary of the most pertinent opinion on school size based on research findings is given in this section.

HIGH SCHOOL ATTENDANCE CENTERS

Minimum Size

Most statements of the minimum acceptable size for high school attendance centers have followed the standards laid down by Dawson, (14) who suggested the following minimums, based upon instructional staff utilization and pupil-teacher ratios: a six-year high school with from 210 to 300 pupils; or a three-year junior high with from 245 to 350 pupils and a three-year senior high with from 210 to 300 pupils. A desirable minimum of 10 and an absolute minimum of 7 teachers were specified. Others (1, 12) suggested identical minimums. Carpenter (9) went below the Dawson standard and offered a figure of 250 pupils in either separate or combined junior and senior high schools as a minimum. Dawson and Reeves (15) and the Committee for the White House Conference on Education (10) specified a desirable minimum of 75 pupils per grade and suggested separate junior and senior high schools, each with a minimum of 300 pupils and 12 teachers. Wood (48) surveyed 45 "leading authorities" and found that the median recommendation for the minimum size of junior high schools was 300 pupils and for senior and six-year high schools was 350 pupils. Following the study of secondary education by Conant (11), published in 1959, experts have tended to increase the minimum size of an acceptable high school. Conant's recommendation, based upon course offerings required of a comprehensive high school, was for a minimum of 100 pupils in a high school graduating class. In order to assure this number of graduates, a minimum of 500 pupils in a four-year high school or about 375 in a three-year senior high would seem to be needed. Recent statements (4, 26) have tended to support Conant's position.

Optimum Size

Dawson's classic study (14) did not specify an optimum size for the high school, but he did state that no advantage is gained by exceeding 600 pupils per attendance unit. The Committee for the White House Conference on Education (10) reported that gains in economy and efficiency can be expected up to 700 pupils, whether the school is senior, junior, or junior-senior high school. No advantage was seen by the Committee in an enrollment of more than 1,000 pupils. Wood (48) reported a median recommendation by his 45 authorities of 700 as the optimum enrollment of a junior high school, of 950 for a three-year senior high, and of 775 for a six-year high school. Oliver (39) selected a jury of experts, consisting of 37 writers and 72 high school principals, who favored secondary schools with enrollments of from 500 to 750 pupils as the ideal size. Junior high schools with an enrollment of from 400 to 500 were suggested. Oliver's experts listed the main disadvantages of small schools as follows: inadequate library; lack of equipment; high teacher turnover; low salaries; inadequate health services; inexperienced teachers; inadequate supervision; restricted extracurricular program; inexperienced administrators; community pressures for status quo; little chance for educational research; and too few teachers. To the present writer, some of these disadvantages seem to be more of a reflection of an administrative unit that is too small rather than of attendance center size.

Chief disadvantages of large schools were listed as: impersonal relationship between pupil and teacher; less personal relationships among pupils; difficulty of pupils acquiring a feeling of belonging; too great a distance between home and school; and fewer opportunities to participate in extracurricular activities. Mennozi (32) solicited opinions about the optimum high school size from prominent recognized authorities and specialists in schoolhouse planning and construction and in school administration. The planners favored schools large enough to accommodate from 750 to 1,400 pupils, while administrators preferred schools not quite that large. The latter group suggested that as enrollment goes beyond 800 pupils, little of value may be added and certain disadvantages set in. Among the latter are: less opportunity for teachers and pupils to know each other as individuals; transportation problems; and fewer opportunities for students to participate in extracurricular activities.

Maximum Size

Very little has been written about the maximum acceptable size for a high school. Hoover (28) reported that graduates of large high schools are not convinced that high schools should be large. Several high schools have been experimenting recently with the "school within a school" concept to avoid overly large schools, but the literature contains nothing more definite than Wood's survey (48) on the maximum size of schools. The median recommendations reported by Wood were 1,100 pupils in a three-year junior high school, 1,525 pupils in a three-year senior high, and 1,150 pupils in a six-year high school.

Major Factors Limiting School Size

A perusal of the literature shows that the factor limiting school size to have received the most attention was the matter of transportation time. Dawson and Reeves (15) stipulated a maximum travel time of one hour each way by bus for high school students. Grieder and others (24) used the same maximum. Carpenter (9) set a maximum of from 50 to 60 minutes each way for junior and senior high school pupils. Alves and others (1) stated that high school pupils should not have to ride more than 1½ hours each way.

School Size—Cost Relationship

The idea that large schools are more efficiently operated than smaller schools appears frequently in the literature (12, 14, 17). Two studies were cited above (18, 29) which show that large districts do indeed provide a higher quality educational program at a lower cost per pupil than is provided by smaller districts. Several additional studies have been made at the attendance center level. Butterworth and Dawson (8) found that in high schools the cost per pupil decreased rapidly up to 200 pupils and continued to decrease, but less rapidly, up to 500 pupils. Without exception, these writers said, it cost more per pupil to maintain a specified program in a small school.

The findings of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (36) were very similar. Their research showed that the smaller the school, the higher the cost per pupil. Excessive costs were found in high schools with fewer than 10 teachers. The cost per pupil in schools with fewer than 100 pupils was about twice the cost in those with more than 200 pupils. Some degree of inflated cost per pupil continued until an enrollment of about 500 pupils was reached. McLure (30) found that the per capita cost of education was related directly to the size of school. When schools were compared on the basis of similar programs, it was found that the smaller the school, the higher the per capita cost. In high schools, the per capita cost decreased rapidly to approximately 200 pupils and decreased less rapidly up to nearly 700 pupils. The cost per pupil of a given program remained fairly stationary between school sizes of from 700 to 3,000 pupils and tended to increase when the size went above 3,000 pupils.

Morris (34) analyzed the relationship between high school size, per pupil expenditures for instructional staff salaries, and selected educational factors. A high positive correlation between the size of the high school and efficient expenditures for staff salaries was shown by the changes in (1) the qualifications of teachers, (2) teacher assignments in major college fields, (3) average number of courses offered, and (4) the average number of subject areas offered as high school enrollment increased and per pupil expenditures for staff and salaries were held constant.

School Size and Selected Educational Factors

More valuable than the statements of opinion about minimum, optimum, and maximum sizes cited above are the results of research conducted on the relationship of school size and selected factors of quality education. One such study, by Barker and Gump (2) seemed to favor smaller schools. This study was conducted in 13 Kansas high schools with school enrollments varying from 35 to 2,287 pupils. It was found that the average number and kind of nonclassroom activities which pupils participated in during their high school careers was twice as great in the small as in the large schools. The findings also showed an adverse relationship between school size and amount of individual pupil participation in nonclassroom activities. This study has been criticized for focusing on extracurricular rather than educational activities.

The other studies reviewed by the survey staff favored larger schools. Seyfert (42) conducted an exhaustive comparison of large and small high schools and found some practices to be affected directly and others indirectly by size of school. He concluded that the small school was restricted in the number of things that it might undertake at any one time.

Burke (7) found that size was a very important factor determining the number of special services provided by high schools. When expenditure per pupil was equivalent, high schools with fewer than 100 pupils provided relatively few services. As size increased up to 500 pupils, the number of services went up. High schools with more than 500 pupils usually provided the most enriched programs.

Tompkins and Gaumnitz (47) found that most of the high schools enrolling fewer than 100 pupils were rarely able to employ specialized professional personnel. Gaumnitz and Tompkins (22) reported that the evidence was not clear and consistent, but that it appeared that larger high schools were superior to smaller ones in ability to hold students throughout the instructional program.

Bohne (5) concluded that the optimum high school attendance center should contain from 750 to 900 pupils. His research showed that schools of this size were large enough to place a full-time specialist in each subject field, operate at a low cost per pupil, and provide an excellent extracurricular program.

A study by Harmon (26) revealed that high schools with fewer than 100 graduates per class were all below the national norm in production of persons who later earned a doctor's degree. Those with more than 100 high school graduates each year were all above the national norm in production of eventual doctor's degree holders.

Feldt (19) discovered a definite relationship between achievement, as measured by the *Iowa Test of Educational Development*, and school size. Pupil achievement in high schools of 100 or fewer pupils in grades 9-12 was lower than that in larger schools. Pupils who had attended a small elementary school and then attended a larger high school were partly, if not completely, able to overcome the effects of earlier schooling. The pupil who attended both a large elementary school and a large high school performed best on the tests.

Smith (43) studied the relation of high school size to 21 selected cost, pupil, teacher, administrative, and institutional factors. He found that schools with fewer than from 200 to 400 pupils were paying a premium for an inferior program. When all factors were considered, a size-range of from 800 to 1,200 pupils appeared as the one at which favorable factors were maximized and unfavorable factors minimized.

Gray (23) investigated the relationship between size and five qualitative and quantitative factors in high schools in Iowa. The five factors used were: student achievement and college enrollment; faculty characteristics; counseling and library services; extracurricular activities program; and breadth and cost of the secondary school program. There appeared to be an increase in quality as school size increased. Schools with fewer than 150 pupils were definitely poorer. Quality differences among the other categories were less pronounced, but the category of from 400 to 999 pupils placed highest or near the top on all five factors.

Patterson (40) found a high positive correlation between the size of a high school and selected characteristics of the instructional personnel in nine southern states, including Georgia. The larger the high school, the greater the probability that youth will be taught by experienced teachers, who are teaching in their major field, with at least the master's degree.

Possibly the most extensive study ever made of secondary education is now under way, costing several hundred thousand dollars and including follow-up studies at intervals of 1, 5, 10, and 20 years after graduation. One recent survey in this study, which has been called Project TALENT, involved giving comprehensive tests and questionnaires to a sampling of 440,000 students in the ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. In relation to size of high school, students from small rural schools were found to be decidedly inferior in advanced mathematics and in the sciences. It is probable that these deficiencies relate directly to teacher competence and, in the sciences, to adequate offerings and facilities.

Many of the findings of Project TALENT come right down to the problems of curriculum advancement, supervision to improve teaching, and similar specialized staff services which determine the extent to which individual needs of youth are met. The field of guidance is pertinent. It was found that 62 per cent of the twelfth-grade boys selected occupations requiring a college degree, yet not more than one-fourth of these students will finish college. A good guidance program, an earmark of a quality school, helps youth to learn to make realistic choices. The implication is that guidance counselors must be provided, and the minimum is one per 500 students. Therefore, *good* high schools must be large enough to justify such staff services.

Other findings point to the contributions that a school psychologist would make to quality or adequacy in schools, a staff service which most of the school systems are too small to justify. The following is a list of important deficiencies identified by John C. Flanagan, Investigator of the Research Project, University of Pittsburgh (21):

1. Lack of progress by students in vocational schools in the basic subjects of reading, writing, and mathematics
2. Lack of application of the psychology of learning to such problems as the English meanings of words in a foreign language
3. Neglect of well-known psychological principles of learning

and forgetting, such as math and science given in isolated courses with no provision for review or systematic later use

4. Failure to apply acquired knowledge to new situations
5. Lack of knowledge of recent studies in industrial psychology on motivation and factors affecting the desire to learn
6. Failure to apply new technologies and media which may increase learning efficiency
7. Failure to apply measurement, evaluation, and guidance of individual learning.

Psychological services upgrade teaching in these areas, but upgrading cannot be achieved by one-time visits from the state or regional staff. It can only be done by a continuing effort within a local school system, yet the criterion generally adopted is one school psychologist per 5,000 students. Project TALENT establishes these implications beyond doubt. They are pertinent to all Georgia schools.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE CENTERS

Minimum Size

Dawson (14) concluded that elementary schools should offer six years of instruction; have a desirable minimum of seven teachers or an absolute minimum of six teachers; have an average of approximately 40 enrolled pupils per teacher; and have, therefore, approximately a minimum of 240-280 pupils per school. Cook (12) accepted Dawson's figures *in toto*. Alves and others (1) suggested that all districts should be large enough to warrant one grade per elementary school teacher. Several sources (9, 10, 48) recommended a minimum enrollment of 175 pupils in grades 1-6, and a minimum of from 225 to 250 if kindergarten and/or grades 7 and 8 were to be included in the elementary school. Dawson and Reeves (15) specified 300 pupils and 12 teachers as the desirable minimum for a K-6 elementary school.

Optimum Size

The Committee for the White House Conference on Education, (10) which recommended a minimum of 175 pupils and six teachers in a six-grade school, said that efficiency and economy could be improved up to 300 pupils and 12 teachers. The 45 leading authorities queried by Wood (48) set the optimum size at 525 pupils for a six-grade elementary school, and 550 pupils for an eight-grade school. Bohne (5) stated that the optimum elementary school is 420 pupils and 14 teachers in a K-6 organization. No other statements of optimum size were found in the literature.

Maximum Size

There is a paucity of discussion in the literature concerning the maximum size of an elementary school. Wood's survey (48) was the only reference found. The median recommendation for maximum size obtained by Wood was for 750 pupils in grades 1-6. The corresponding figure for grades 1-8 was 825 pupils.

Again, bus transportation time was the only limiting factor on elementary school size discussed in the literature. Carpenter (9) placed a limit of from 25 to 35 minutes each way on the bus for elementary pupils. Dawson and Reeves (15) and Grieder and others (24) each set the maximum at 45 minutes, while Alves and others (1) extended the time limit to one hour each way for elementary school pupils.

School Size—Cost Relationship

The National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (36) reported that excessive costs were usually found in districts where the elementary schools had less than one teacher per grade. Butterworth and Dawson (8) discovered that cost per pupil in elementary schools decreased greatly up to an enrollment of 100 pupils and to a less-marked degree up to 200 pupils. McLure (31) agreed that cost per pupil decreased rather rapidly up to 100 pupils but found that it continued to decrease, although less rapidly, up to nearly 300 pupils. He reported that the cost per pupil tended to remain stable from 300 to 1,000 pupils and to increase with school sizes above 1,000.

School Size and Selected Educational Factors

Burke (7) revealed that elementary schools with fewer than 100 pupils provided only one-third as many special services as did schools with 200 or more pupils. Dreier (16) discovered that high school pupils who had attended graded elementary schools had an advantage over those who had attended ungraded elementary schools. The advantage existed in all three areas tested —reading, arithmetic, and language—but was most pronounced in reading. The difference was evident at both the ninth and twelfth grade levels. Feldt's study (19) of the relationship between pupil achievement and high school size was discussed above. It is appropriate to repeat here his finding that attendance of a small elementary school was a handicap that persisted throughout the pupil's high school career and that the detrimental effects of earlier schooling could never be completely overcome. Best test performance was obtained from pupils who had attended both a large elementary and a large secondary school.

Hieronymous (27) reported an extensive investigation of the relationship between achievement in the basic skills and size of school. The Iowa Basic Skills Testing Program was administered to all sixth-, seventh-, and eighth-grade pupils in more than 1,000 school systems. The tests were concerned exclusively with the basic skills acquired in the elementary schools in reading, vocabulary, methods of study, mechanics of correct writing, and arithmetic. In analyzing the results, Hieronymous classified the schools into six enrollment categories. A steady increase in achievement occurred with increase in the size of school. This was true in all the areas tested, with the most pronounced difference occurring in reading and the smallest difference in arithmetic. The relationship held not only for median scores but also when pupils at various levels of achievement were compared from one enrollment class to another. Test results favored schools with enrollments of 90 or more pupils per grade.

A similar, but smaller scale study was carried out by Street and others (45) in two rural counties of eastern Kentucky. Schools were grouped into three enrollment categories, with test results favoring schools in the largest size category—schools with more than 300 pupils in grades 1-8. Standardized achievement tests were given in reading, spelling, language, and arithmetic to all pupils in grades 7 and 8. Differences in favor of the largest schools were significant on all tests. The authors concluded that pupils in larger schools tend to perform better than pupils in smaller schools in the same or comparable school districts, although they admitted that factors other than size might have influenced the differences in levels of achievement.

Perhaps the most comprehensive examination pertinent to the present discussion was conducted by Sollars (44), who studied the relationship between school size and selected cost indicators and certain characteristics indicative of program quality. An increase in program quality was apparent with increasing enrollment up to 500 pupils in grades 1-6, then a decrease in quality appeared. The findings showed that when all indicators were considered, from 300 to 499 pupils in grades 1-6 was the category in which favorable indicators approached a maximum and unfavorable indicators approached a minimum.

C. THE INTERMEDIATE UNIT

The "intermediate" unit of school organization may be defined as a legal organization of two or more local or basic school districts serving as intermediary between the state department of education and the local units that operate the schools. The concept of such an organization was established long ago in American public education.

In most states, each county is made up of separate local school districts, and the offices of the county superintendent and county board of education have been the intermediary between local and state school governments. States that use the county as the basic unit of school administration, as do most of the southern states, do not have intermediate units established between the county and state level.

Originally the intermediate unit was created as an arm of the State assigned to oversee and supervise small local districts. To a large degree the function was clerical and statistical rather than managerial. As districts have grown larger through internal growth and through consolidation, the function of the intermediate unit has shifted gradually to one of providing services which the local districts needed but could not justify. Hence, consideration of the intermediate unit is pertinent to the present study.

Most of the attention and study given to the changing status of the intermediate unit has developed within the past twenty years. Some insight into the reasons for this concern is needed in order to view the concept in its proper perspective. Several observations are made here.

A review of the literature pertaining to intermediate school districts shows that the center of interest has been in the states which are traditionally and persistently "small district" states—those which do not use the county as a basic unit of local civil government. Most vocal and active in the intermediate school district movement have been members of the Division of County and Rural Area Superintendents, N.E.A. Department of Rural Education. Increased concern has been timed simultaneously with the shift in the national personality from basically rural to urban, highlighted by the declining population, influence, and power of rural America. Most of the research has been directed toward "how to strengthen the intermediate unit," and might be viewed as self-preservation activity.

One of the first studies was initiated in New York in 1944, followed in the 1950's by similar studies in states such as Illinois, Washington, Indiana, California, Iowa, and Idaho. These studies generally appear to be based on an assumption that school district reorganization is something that will occur within a county and finally will end with less than countywide units. Characteristic of the studies, also, is the commitment to waiting for voluntary reorganization. New York, for example, required that all districts must vote favorably before reorganization could take place. Consequently, many years of effort and only partial success in reorganization resulted.

One can readily understand the legitimate concern for the future status of the intermediate unit (county superintendency) in the face of the strong trend toward larger local districts throughout the country. As local units approach the county in size, the intermediate unit as a county operation is threatened. Also, if a biased person were to make the decision in advance that local districts were *not* to be enlarged to county size, then he could predict the actual findings of many of these studies: the need for services which local units are too small to provide, hence the need for the intermediate unit.

The very consistent view of the county as the normal outer limit of an "intermediate" unit renders the research and literature meaningless in a state where the county is the basic local unit. In such a state, an intermediate organization normally would have to consist of major portions of two or more counties. Any criteria developed for such an organization should stand a critical test that the proponents of a "county intermediate unit" have dodged with their small internal districts: If a governing board, an executive administrator, a professional staff, and a corps of special subject teachers can work effectively and render adequate service to pupils and teachers in a number of small local units, why not operate the total educational program in this manner and do away with the multiplicity of ineffective local districts? Why preserve autonomous units that are admittedly inadequate to do the job?

Application of this test in Georgia leads to the conclusion that the intermediate unit can be designed and justified only *after* school system reorganization has achieved reasonable goals. Otherwise, the intermediate unit will be used to compensate for inefficient "local" organization and will retard improvement in the latter. Thus, if Georgia says that many of her school districts, such as Hogansville, Tallapoosa, Tallulah Falls, or Chattahoochee County, for example, are going to be preserved regardless of justification, then a compensatory intermediate service unit to try to improve education or a similar "crutch," such as the contract plan, may be suitable.

From a professional standpoint, the intermediate unit, the cooperative service districts, and contract services are not basic, fundamental structural units in a state system of local school units. Any or all may have merit in patching up a design which the basic units cannot be shaped to form. New York, which uses all three plans, indirectly supports this position by the wording in three statutes: *Laws of New York*, Ch. 747, Article 40, April 15, 1953 (Intermediate School Districts); *Laws of New York*, Ch. 583, April 21, 1955 (Cooperative Educational Services); and *Laws of New York*, Ch. 723, April 18, 1956 (Master Plan for School District Reorganization). The position is confirmed by a *Guide to School District Reorganization for New York State*, State Education Department, Albany, 1958 (38, p. 22):

> The legal framework and the educational leadership required to achieve this objective already exist. In the last analysis, however, it is up to the people in their present school districts to decide how far and how fast they wish to move in broadening educational opportunities for their own and their neighbors' children.

The wholly permissive policy excessively subordinates the equity of the State in the quality of education provided locally. One can accept the dedication to the concept of "community schools" established as centers of "natural or sociological communities" without swallowing the maxim that "every identifiable community should have a school." (30, p. 35) Still less defensible is "a recommendation for the reorganization of school districts on the basis of the natural sociological community . . . a village, town, or city together with the tributary trade and service area . . . . (30, p. 33)

This exploration of the intermediate unit, therefore, leads to the beginning in terms of the program that is to be operated and how it can best be conducted. A recent report helps to detail the questions. In a four-year period, 1959-60 to 1962-63, state aid was requested for the following services shared across independent school district lines in New York. (3, p. 14)

Adult Education
Agriculture
Art
Attendance
Business Education
Cafeteria Manager
Consultant Services
Curriculum Coordinator
Dental Hygiene
Director, Pupil Personnel
Driver Education
Elementary Supervision
Foreign Language
Gifted
Guidance
Handicapped
Homemaking
Industrial Arts
Librarian
Mathematics
Music
Nurse
Physical Education
Psychologist
Reading
Science Teacher
Social Worker
Speech Correction
Visual Aids
Vocational-Technical

Not only can these services best be coordinated within a single school system, but most of these services should be found within individual *good* local school centers. Certainly, they are not services that can best be conducted at some regional area, or intermediate level.

D. CURRENT STATE STANDARDS AND PRACTICES FOR SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION

Twenty-nine state departments of education responded to the staff's request for information about current policies, standards, and criteria being used in their consideration of problems related to school district organization. Other replies were received too late to be of use.

Size

Only eight state departments sent materials specifying optimum or minimum enrollment figures. The Pennsylvania recommendations are perhaps the most ambitious of those received. The state had suggested that the optimum size of a school district should be from 6,000 to 60,000 pupils. A mandatory reorganization has been instituted, setting a minimum school district size of 4,000 pupils in average daily attendance. However, many exceptions are provided in the law, and the median size of school reorganizations under the act is actually about 2,500 pupils.

In Vermont, the State Board of Education has published a figure of 6,000 pupils per district as a desirable minimum, but the board has stated that due to population sparsity a practical minimum of 2,000 pupils per district should be accepted. The Connecticut State Department of Education has recommended a minimum daily membership of 5,000 pupils in regional school districts. The State Board of Education in California will not approve new unified districts encompassing the territory of a single high school district unless the new district will have a projected average daily attendance of 2,000 pupils, except when the district is determined to be isolated or sparsely populated. Washington has also recommended a minimum of 1,000 pupils in average daily membership.

Indiana has established the 1,000 pupil figure as a minimum and has added the stipulation that the proposed district must also contain not less than $5,000 adjusted assessed valuation per pupil in average daily attendance. Nebraska, with one of the most pressing reorganization needs in the nation, has adopted no official policy, but the State Department of Education has publicized a recommendation made by the Nebraska Association of School Administrators that a school district should have a valuation of $10,000,000 and contain either 500 pupils or 400 square miles.

Procedures

Most of the states currently struggling with problems of school district reorganization provide for a great deal of local initiative and local participation in the development of reorganization plans. The most usual state level participation is through the adoption of state policy requiring the creation of county reorganization commissions and the requirement that the state board of education give final approval or disapproval to the plans developed locally. Most states require that people in the districts involved in proposed reorganizations be permitted to vote on the proposals. It is interesting to note that the State Board of Education in Vermont has recently issued a publication stressing the importance of local involvement, to which one board member added a minority report calling for greater state leadership. The state lay advisory committee on education in Washington has also recognized the inadequacy of local initiative. On the other hand, states that have had reorganization mandated by their legislatures, such as Nevada and Florida, have accomplished reorganization at one fell swoop and are not now involved in reorganization efforts. Such states simply established one administrative unit per county and thus have little further to offer in the way of guidelines for reorganization. States relying on local initiative for reorganization have developed elaborate procedures. These would appear to be unrealistic for Georgia, where it is anticipated that these decisions will be made at the state level.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE CENTERS

Size

Nine state departments of education sent materials describing minimum, maximum, or optimum enrollment figures for school attendance centers. The Florida statement was one of the most complete standards received. Florida provides for an absolute minimum of 180 pupils per elementary school attendance center. The normal minimum for junior and/or senior high schools was set at 100 pupils per grade. According to the Florida report, the generally accepted maximum for junior high schools is from 1,000 to 1,200 pupils and for senior highs from 1,500 to 1,800 pupils.

Connecticut recommends the following minimums: 175 in grades K-6; 500 pupils in grades 9-12; or 750 pupils in grades 7-12. The West Virginia recommendations were similar: 175 in K-6 or 225 in K-8; 125 per grade in junior high school; and a senior high school of sufficient size to assure 100 pupils in the graduating class. The recommendation of 100 high school seniors was also made by Kentucky, where other minimums were suggested of eight teachers per elementary school and three sections per grade in junior high schools. A four-year senior high enrollment of 600 pupils was recommended by Kentucky. The only other state recommending high school minimums this large was New Jersey, which recommended 700 pupils in a four-year high school or 800 pupils in a six-year secondary school.

Other minimums recommended for high school size were 500 by Washington and 250 by Mississippi and South Carolina. The latter two states also agreed that elementary schools should be large enough to allow one teacher per grade. The state of Washington accepted this figure as a minimum but said that it would be desirable to have 75 pupils per grade in elementary schools. Virginia was the only state to report an optimum size for elementary schools. The State Department of Education recognized that schools of 900 or more pupils may be administered economically and efficiently but stated that they do not serve the best interests of elementary school pupils. An enrollment of 600 was suggested as the optimum.

Procedures

Procedures for the establishment of attendance centers are left entirely to local administrative units in most states, and no state guidelines exist. However, in several southern states where the states provide a substantial portion of the capital outlay funds, guidelines have been established by the state departments of education. The following excerpts from the North Carolina requirements are typical:

1. The local district shall develop a plan based on:
   - a. A system-wide self-evaluation of the existing program of studies and activities
   - b. An educational survey of the school system including an evaluation of administration, organization, financing, personnel, transportation and facilities
2. The plan shall be submitted to the State Board through the Division of School Planning and shall include:
   - a. Proposed long-range objectives for total school improvement, including program of studies and activities, personnel, financing, transportation, administration, organization, and facilities essential to qualify for State and regional accreditation
   - b. Proposed plan of action to implement the objectives including:
     - (1) A system-wide map showing:
       - (a) Location of present schools
       - (b) Major natural land characteristics, including rivers, mountains, etc.
       - (c) Major man-made objects, including railroads, highways, etc.
       - (d) Administrative organization of schools (grades housed)
       - (e) Membership of present schools
       - (f) Administrative unit boundary lines
     - (2) A statement of the projected enrollments for the entire system and for each school for a five-year period
     - (3) A plan of organization, including both existing and proposed schools
     - (4) Immediate and long-range plans for utilizing existing facilities, including program of instruction and personnel to be assigned
     - (5) Identification of those additional facilities needed to replace obsolete facilities and to house increased or decreased enrollments in accomplishing the long-range plan of improvement.

It would appear that the above excerpts from the North Carolina plan, although intended primarily as a guide for the construction of new facilities, could be adapted and used as a plan for locating attendance centers. Information concerning bus routes and the homes of each pupil should be indicated on the system-wide map discussed above.

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CHAPTER 3

ORGANIZATION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

Public school systems throughout the nation, although different in many important respects, pursue a common ideal and purpose in the educational effort—to assure every child a full range of educational opportunities under circumstances that will lead to his fullest development. The ability of a state to provide such assurance is directly afforded by the manner in which its resources for education are organized.

PATTERNS OF ORGANIZATION

The pattern of school district organization in Georgia is one factor that must be considered in discussing the capability of the State to accomplish the goals it has stated for public education. Georgia has 159 county districts and 37 independent districts. The capability of any one of these districts to design and administer a full range of educational opportunities is a function of the number of children enrolled and of the number of teachers and staff specialists employed. Table 1 presents data showing the distribution of the districts by size of the school population in average daily attendance for the school year 1963-64.

TABLE 1
THE SIZE OF GEORGIA SCHOOL DISTRICTS
BY AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE, 1963-64

ADA Range	*Number of Systems*
1,000 or fewer	17
1,001 - 2,000	55
2,001 - 3,000	41
3,001 - 4,000	29
4,001 - 5,000	20
5,001 - 6,000	12
6,001 - 7,000	4
7,001 - 8,000	2
8,001 - 9,000	2
9,001 - 10,000	1
10,000 and over	13

Source: Georgia State Department of Education, *Annual Reports of the Georgia Department of Education*, 1962-64, (Atlanta: The Department) p. 299.

Georgia's public school program is administered in relatively small units. At the same time, more than 44 per cent of the 1,087,679 children in public schools in the State in 1963-64 were enrolled in 12 county systems and one independent system. Fifteen systems had enrollments of 10,000 or more in 1963-64. With the increased movement of population to the larger centers, it seems reasonable to assume that the major portion of the projected annual increase in enrollment of approximately 24,000 children each year (7, p. 21)* will occur in the same county and independent districts. Using the number of children in a system as an indicator of the quality of program to be offered, it appears that the larger systems will get better and the smaller systems will get worse.

Chapter 4 presents studies of nine sample areas comprised of 18 counties, 7 independent local systems, and 169 local school centers. The population changes taking place in these areas were traced through three federal census reports. The findings presented in Table 2 are consistent with similar studies in every southern state, and must be considered in any serious planning for the future of public education in Georgia.

The unit cost per ADA of education and the quality of the educational opportunities that can be offered are directly related to the size of a school district (administrative unit). As a rule, it is expected that the larger administrative units can afford to offer more diverse programs and more comprehensive educational experiences for every child than would be possible in the smaller units.

The following is quoted from a publication prepared by the Georgia State Department of Education:

> Dr. James Conant has said that a good high school must be big enough to provide a comprehensive program of studies for all children. We allot teachers on the basis of daily attendance. No matter how good teachers are, if a school has so few children that it earns only 4 or 5 teachers, these teachers cannot possibly teach all that the students need. Dr. Conant states—and research supports him in this—that a high school should be big enough to have 100 children in the graduating class, if it is going to offer enough courses to provide for the needs of all children. (7, p. 22)

It is estimated that, with the present dropout rate, a Georgia school administrative unit must have a minimum of 3,000 children of one race enrolled in grades 1-12 in order to assure

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* Numbers in parentheses refer to References at the end of this chapter.

TABLE 2
Two Decades of Population Shifts in Nine Areas

County or City	*Per Cent Increase* *1940 to 1950*	*Per Cent Increase* *1950 to 1960*
Bartow	8.3	3.[illegible]
Calhoun	—17.8	—14.4
Chattahoochee	—19.7	7.1
Clay	—17.3	—22.1
Floyd	12.0	9.9
Glascock	—21.3	—25.3
Hancock	—13.4	— 9.7
Jefferson	— 5.9	— 7.4
Laurens	— 1.4	— 2.4
Marion	— 6.2	—16.0
Quitman	—12.2	—19.3
Randolph	—16.9	—19.7
Stewart	—13.3	—19.8
Sumter	— 1.2	1.8
Taliaferro	—28.1	—25.4
Troup	13.6	— 5.3
Warren	—14.2	—16.2
Webster	—13.6	—20.4
Americus	22.7	18.3
Cartersville	18.4	19.2
Dublin	30.9	35.0
Hogansville	— 3.0	— 2.9
LaGrange	13.8	— 5.6
Rome	12.7	8.8
West Point	13.5	13.1
STATE	10.3	14.5

at least 100 pupils in the twelfth grade graduating class. Only 88 of the State's 196 operating school districts now enroll the minimum number of white children, and only 47 of the 180 school districts operating Negro schools enroll 2,000 or more pupils in grades 1-12. However, an enrollment of 2,000 pupils provides only a marginal possibility of achieving the excellence aspired to in the statements of Georgia's leaders. The State's educational leadership has correctly stated:

> Research and school authorities tell us that an adequate system with a maximum efficiency in a school system is reached with 10,000 students in a community of 40,000 people. This makes it possible for the school system to have good leadership and a broad tax base to support education. (7, p. 23)

The organization of the school districts as administrative units is only one part of the problem. The other part is concerned with the internal organization of the districts into attendance centers where the children spend their time in school. The attendance centers contained within the State's 196 administrative units are organized by grade levels in such a wide variety of ways that one might conclude that an all-out effort has been made to meet local conditions and local needs. Whether or not local arrangements have always been made so as to meet adequately the needs of children must be questioned. The organization of attendance centers by grades for the school year 1963-64 is shown in Table 3.

It should be observed that Table 3 is concerned with the grouping of children and youth by grades in a building. While the present pattern of grouping pupils in varying grade combi-

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE CENTERS BY GRADE LEVEL
1963-64

Grades in School	*Number of Schools*		
	White	*Negro*	*Total*
1- 3	8	1	9
1- 4	10	4	14
1- 5	16	9	25
1- 6	182	51	233
1- 7	440	170	610
1- 8	305	114	419
Other Elementary Schools	16	7	23
1-12	118	122	240
6-12	3	2	5
7-12	13	7	20
8-12	106	28	134
9-12	65	8	73
10-12	17	3	20
Other High Schools	4	11	15
1- 9	6	6	12
1-10	0	1	1
1-11	0	1	1
6- 8	7	3	10
6- 9	0	1	1
7- 8	20	4	24
7- 9	14	3	17
8- 9	13	4	17
9 only	2	0	2
8-10	3	0	3
9-10	0	1	1
9-11	1	0	1
10-11	1	0	1
Special Schools	9	2	11
Grand Total	1,379	563	1,942

Source: Georgia State Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1962-64*, p. 294.

2

nations may solve a local housing problem, it creates manifold problems in the planning and administration of a comprehensive program of education.

One explanation for the many internal organization situations is the practice of contracting with adjacent school districts for educational services. Such arrangements do help in solving some educational problems. The 20-year term of these contracts, however, removes the arrangement from the area of expediency into the realm of permanency. It seems completely clear that districts that are not large enough to provide all of the necessary educational programs and services have little or no excuse for continuing in business, even when bolstered by the contract plan.

The practice of interdistrict contracting for educational services is undoubtedly easier than attempting to change the school district boundaries. However, it is the considered judgment of the survey staff that it is not an acceptable substitute for proper organization of the school districts or of the attendance centers.

The smallness of the attendance centers is indicated also by the number of teachers in such centers. The effect of the number of teachers in an attendance center can be interpreted in the preceding quotation, "No matter how good teachers are, if a school earns only 4 or 5 teachers, these teachers cannot possibly teach all that the students need."

Table 4 shows that Georgia has many small school attendance centers. Other sections of this report discuss the desirability of consolidation of centers so as to effect better grouping of children and to provide for more economical use of public funds in support of the schools. It is sufficient to comment here that the present practices are wasteful and ineffectual in accomplishing the educational results necessary to keep Georgia progressing.

Good schools do not just happen because good people want them. Good schools happen when people *plan* it that way, and then *act* to get what they have planned. Georgia has had a plethora of plans—but very little action, apart from pouring money into the planning programs. While money is a part of the answer, it is not the major part of the answer, and it should be carefully noted that Georgia cannot command enough money to make its present organizational pattern work in accomplishing its educational goals.

TABLE 4

SIZE OF GEORGIA SCHOOLS BY NUMBER OF TEACHERS
1963-64

Size of School (Number of Teachers)	*Number of Schools*		
	White	*Negro*	*Total*
1-Teacher	5	4	9
2-Teachers	11	6	17
3-Teachers	13	9	22
4-Teachers	47	12	59
5-Teachers	46	10	56
6-Teachers	60	21	81
7-Teachers	60	15	75
8-Teachers	65	24	89
9-Teachers	62	22	84
10-Teachers	47	20	67
11-Teachers	33	20	53
12-Teachers	42	22	64
13-Teachers	39	14	53
14-Teachers	50	21	71
15-Teachers	52	20	72
16-Teachers	39	25	64
17-Teachers	61	14	75
18-Teachers	51	13	64
19-Teachers	33	12	45
20 or more Teachers	563	259	822
Total Schools	1,379	563	1,942

Source: Georgia State Department of Education, *Annual Reports, 1962-64*, p. 296.

In discussing the need for planning, the Governor's Commission to Improve Education stated:

> The most important single prerequisite for educational improvement in Georgia is effective long-range planning. Continuity of effort must be achieved. A program to improve education cannot be achieved by any one commission, one session of the legislature, one Governor's administration. It involves a continuing cycle of study, planning, implementation, evaluating, and replanning. This process must take place at all levels and involves consideration of both broad problems and detailed ones. (3, p. 18)

No one can quarrel with the wisdom of this point of view. However, it must be recalled that a statewide study of education in Georgia was published January 1, 1947, in which the problems were assessed and recommendations were made for solutions. After eighteen years, many of the same problems are hampering the progress of Georgia's program of public education. These problems continue to exist because of a lack of forthright action—not because of any lack of planning.

During the eighteen years since the 1947 report was made, many changes have taken place in Georgia—changes in the cultural, social, and economic life that affect every citizen. These changes are the result of positive and aggressive thinking and planning, together with several bold forward steps. While industrial development has been possible, for example, only by forthright action, education flounders in indecision. It is interesting to observe that during this same period of time, the State Department of Education has gone through a transition in its relationship with local school situations from *regulation* to *leadership*! It would be desirable for the State Department of Education to recover its role of *regulating* less than adequate local programs.

The Governor's Commission correctly identified the nature of the basic problems, and expressed an appropriate feeling of urgency. It stated, in part:

> The types of educational programs needed to prepare students for the modern world are so varied and complex that they can be offered only in public school units which are fairly large—larger than the majority of school units in Georgia. Action should be taken to encourage the formation of larger school units. (3, p. 27)

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The adequacy of school programs in Georgia must be considered in the light of Georgia's aspirations for educational benefits for each individual and for the State as a whole. The most recent comprehensive report of the matter is contained in *Educating Georgia's People,* prepared by the Governor's Commission to Improve Education, wherein it states in part:

> The increasing store of knowledge and technology and growing demands for competence on the part of every individual place continually greater emphasis on the need for education at least through high school. The prospects of the kinds of problem-solving and decision-making needed by the future citizens of Georgia make it essential to improve both the quantity and the quality of elementary and secondary education . . . . Every child in Georgia should have available to him a comprehensive program in grades 1 through 12 that includes general education, special attention to the differential needs of the gifted, the average, and the slow learner; and pro-

> grams appropriate in content and variety for both the college-bound and those desiring vocational training. (3, pp. 21-22)

The most urgent problem standing in the way of realizing these goals for improving education in Georgia is the large number of youth who drop out of school before graduation from the twelfth grade. This problem exists throughout our nation, and is a serious concern in Georgia. The Governor's Commission was fully aware of the problem and of its impact upon plans for the continuing progress of the State. As it stated in its report:

> The ability to provide an adequate program is related to the size of schools and of systems. It is important that good schools be easily available to all youth. It is equally important that youth take full advantage of the opportunity to attend. Vigorous action should be taken to curb the alarming drop-out rate in Georgia. This should include attention to the adequacy of the school curriculum for these pupils, guidance and counseling, visiting teacher allotment, special teachers, and other factors found to be effective in the solution of this problem. (3, p. 23)

Other sections of this report consider the effect of school district size and the location and size of attendance centers in detail. School size is considered in this discussion because of its relationship to each of the matters mentioned in the above quotation. For example, the concern for a comprehensive program for grades 1-12 in which all receive general education; in which special attention is given to the differentiated needs of the gifted, the average, and the slow learner; and in which courses appropriate in content and variety are offered for the college-bound and the vocationally oriented high school youth is directly related to the capability of a school system to provide it. The kind of program necessary to meet the above criteria does not lie within the capability of a small school system or a small school attendance center. The small school system is hard pressed to provide basic teachers. A few are unable even to provide a full-time principal.

The differentiation of programs for the gifted, the average, and the slow learners is accomplished by grouping within classes and by offering a wider variety of courses from which students may choose their enriching academic experiences. In elementary school, it is common practice to divide each class into three groups. In secondary schools the grouping, if it is done at all, is accomplished by assignment of students to specific sections of a class. In an elementary school attendance center having only one first grade class, there would be three possibilities for grouping. In an elementary school having three first grade classes, there would be nine possible grouping combinations. In a high school class having twenty-five pupils enrolled, it would be difficult to have more than one section for a subject. If the class had ninety pupils enrolled, there could be three grouping sections.

The adequacy of the school program is, then, determined by the capability of the school system and the school attendance center to provide for the learning needs of each child. The extent to which these needs are met is difficult to measure. At best, the measurement must be highly subjective. However, certain objective data are available on Georgia secondary schools and their programs which are indicative of quality or adequacy. The data include statistics on failure and retardation, dropout data, information on graduates entering college, training of the instructional staff, total Carnegie units offered, units offered in various subject areas, and the percentage of pupils taught subjects by teachers without certificate endorsement for the subject.

Holding Power of Georgia Schools

The size of high schools appears to have little to do with the ability of the schools to hold their students through graduation. A study of the relationship between holding power and size of school made by the U. S. Office of Education in 1950 (1) shows no clear and consistent evidence to demonstrate the superior holding power of large schools over small schools. This merely means that bigness and quality are not synonymous. Other studies show "lack of success" in academic experiences to be a major factor in an individual's decision to quit school. Lack of success can be observed in the failure and retardation of pupils. Table 5 gives a summary of failure and retardation data reported to the Georgia State Department of Education for the school year 1963-64.

It should be noted that the student failures reported in Table 5 are for the year 1963-64 only. In other words, this is the annual crop Georgia schools add to the retarded group. The data for the children retarded for age in grade are cumulative. A failing child accumulates his failures as an over-aged pupil.

A publication of the National Education Association, *School Drop-Outs,* states:

> In general, pupils apparently leave school because they cannot do the work . . . . Schools have no control over some of the factors, perhaps the most significant factors, which contribute to school dropout. They cannot, for example, produce the necessary change in the socio-economic and cultural background of the pupil or the attitude of his family or neighborhood toward education. They can, of course, at least try to reduce school-induced practices which emphasize the handicaps resulting from difference in background . . . . There is no simple explanation for the behavior of the drop-out, and there is no simple or single solution to the problem, but one of the first steps the schools can take is to recognize the potential drop-out as early as possible. (6, p. 8)

In light of the evidence, it seems that the potential dropout could be identified early in the first grade, if "lack of success" can be accepted as a factor in an individual's decision to leave school. The fact that children do fail to achieve at the levels set for continuous progress through the grades and that they do become retarded for age in grade suggest strongly that there are "school-induced practices" that contribute to the dropout problem. Table 6 shows the nature of the dropout problem for the period 1958-64, as reported by the Georgia State Department of Education. Considerable progress has been made in

TABLE 5

FAILURE AND RETARDATION IN GEORGIA SCHOOLS
1963-64

Grade	*Total Net Enrollment*	*Student Failures*	*Per Cent*	*Retarded for Age in Grade*	*Per Cent*	*Dropout by Grade*
1	112,947	11,261	9.0	13,126	11.6	499
2	102,818	6,211	6.0	17,217	16.7	109
3	99,175	5,266	5.3	20,228	20.4	128
4	97,376	4,523	4.6	22,079	22.7	172
5	93,762	4,021	4.2	23,577	25.1	282
6	91,564	4,715	5.1	25,217	27.5	533
7	89,033	3,499	3.9	25,874	29.0	1,261
8	87,030	6,475	7.4	27,066	31.1	3,115
9	83,993	8,167	9.7	25,887	31.0	5,156
10	72,433	6,526	9.0	19,294	26.6	4,458
11	61,536	3,869	6.2	11,606	18.9	2,967
12	46,213	1,077	2.3	8,095	17.5	1,380

Source: Georgia State Department of Education, *Annual Reports for 1962-64.* Adapted.

holding pupils under age 14, as indicated by the fact that the number of dropouts in this age group in 1963-64 was less than half the number in 1958-59. The number is still excessive, however, and the number of high school dropouts has shown no definite trend.

TABLE 6

GEORGIA SCHOOL DROPOUTS, BY AGE

1958-1964

	Number of Dropouts					
Age	*1958-59*	*1959-60*	*1960-61*	*1961-62*	*1962-63*	*1963-64*
Below 6	136	160	154	138	156	124
6	426	445	383	269	262	233
7	295	240	250	175	179	134
8	273	234	193	141	118	73
9	291	240	202	146	128	94
10	314	255	233	161	115	93
11	370	297	263	204	149	118
12	512	499	423	319	278	213
13	950	890	912	647	613	564
14	2,048	2,000	1,866	1,820	1,626	1,506
15	3,835	3,959	3,957	3,715	3,811	3,271
16	7,323	7,368	6,749	6,730	7,490	7,372
17	3,953	4,114	3,753	4,033	3,961	4,153
18	1,677	1,638	1,600	1,711	1,728	1,589

Source: Georgia State Department of Education, *Annual Reports, 1963-64*, p. 308.

A child is considered a dropout when he leaves school prior to graduation from the twelfth grade for any reason other than death and does not enroll in another school. Under Georgia's compulsory attendance laws, a child must attend school until he is sixteen years of age, after which time he is not a delinquent if he fails to attend school. There appears to be a real difference of opinion at the State level between those who make the laws and those who would have education serve the best interests of the State and of each individual. If graduation from high school is the minimum desirable educational experience for future Georgia citizens, then appropriate legislation should be adopted to keep youth in school until they have graduated from high school or until they have been certified as uneducable.

High School Graduates Entering College

Table 7 shows a strong positive correlation between the percentage of high school graduates entering college and the size of the high schools they attended. From high schools below 500 pupils in size, only 26.4 per cent of the graduates went to college. In schools of over 500 pupils, 34.7 per cent of the graduates entered colleges. The 20 high schools enrolling 1,500 or more pupils sent 40 per cent of their graduates to college. These 20 large high schools had only 131 fewer graduates entering college than the 230 small high schools, although the total number of graduates from the small high schools outnumbered those from the large high schools by 3,242. Factors other than size of school, of course, determine whether or not a pupil will continue his education in college. Insofar as adequacy of the high school program is a determinant in college entrance, however, size of school can be a very important factor.

TABLE 7

GRADUATES FROM GEORGIA HIGH SCHOOLS ENTERING COLLEGE
1962-63

School Size (Pupils Enrolled)	*Number of Schools*	*Number of Graduates*	*Number of Graduates Entering College*	*Per Cent*
Below 500	230	8,604	2,274	26.4
500-999	102	9,519	2,704	28.4
1,000-1,499	29	4,646	1,844	39.7
1,500 +	20	5,362	2,143	40.0
Totals	381	28,131	8,965	31.8 Avg.

Another facet of the problem of adequate school programs is observed in the experiences of high school graduates who seek entrance into the state colleges and universities. After a prolonged analysis of the problem, a report was made in 1959 by the Joint House and Senate Education Study Committee to the Georgia State Legislature. It stated in part:

> Many of our able students are not academically qualified to go on to college when they graduate from high school. One-third of the college freshmen drop out in the first year. The academically talented student as a rule is not being sufficiently challenged, does not work hard enough, and his program of studies is not of adequate range. . . . Where it has been tried, ability grouping of students in high school, by subjects, has been reported successful. In many schools, able students aren't given as wide a range of academic subjects as the high school student had available in the early 1930's . . . . More than 50 per cent of elementary and high school students drop out between the 6th and 12th grades. Many of these would remain in school, if proper

> guidance and if proper courses were available . . . . Academic training and vocational training in all fields is more adequate in the larger high school than in the smaller school. (4)

The committee took note of the trend of increasing disparity between high school programs and college requirements and commented:

> The committee's study can lead to but one conclusion. In the foreseeable future, unless corrective measures are taken, our larger colleges will be attended by students coming from the larger high schools within the State, plus a substantial percentage of students from out of State. Meanwhile, students from small high schools, almost all of which are located in small counties, will of necessity attend a junior college, or none at all. To express the result quite bluntly, the current trend in our State System of education will ultimately lead to a condition where children of taxpayers who help support our state colleges will be deprived of the advantages that may occur by virtue of a college education. (4)

After "tearing off a little more hide," the report noted that the testing and guidance program which is available in the larger schools was either not available or was completely ineffectual in the small high schools. The obvious inadequacy of the small high schools is demonstrated by the fact that too many of their students who entered college were wholly unprepared for the cultural, social, and academic requirements of college life and, perforce, became discouraged and quit.

The problems encountered by Georgia high school graduates seeking and gaining admittance to institutions in the University System of Georgia have probably not been studied carefully enough over a sufficient period of time to provide reliable data by which an evaluation can be made. The Office of the Regents of the University System of Georgia, however, has made some important studies of the problems. One such study concludes:

> It seems apparent that a superficial examination of the rate of rejection of applications to the University System gives an alarming picture which largely disappears upon closer scrutiny. Specifically, it seems distressing to observe that 20% of the applications to the white University System college for the Fall of 1963 were rejected. However, when one realizes that of the rejected applicants, 43% were accepted by some System college for the Fall quarter, an unknown number were

> accepted for non-System colleges or other quarters, and only 2% of those who were not accepted elsewhere in the System actually applied anywhere else in the System, it is clear that practically everyone who seriously tried to get into the System and was willing to go to other than his first-choice institution found a place. This of course had to be true, because in the Fall, 1963 some of the System institutions literally would accept, at least on a trial basis, any live body whose fee check did not bounce. This was their stated, though perhaps not widely advertised, policy of admissions, and this was true of large as well as small System institutions. (5, p. 14)

Although the institutions of higher education may have, in the past, been so highly selective in admission policies that many graduates of Georgia high schools could not gain admittance, it appears now that any high school graduate who can show "reasonable probability of success" based upon standard test scores will be admitted.

The problem of the small high school, however, remains that of being able to offer enough academic courses and other necessary experiences to assure their graduates a reasonable probability of success in college.

Training of Instructional Staff

Pupils attending Georgia high schools with at least 500 pupils have a much better chance of being instructed by teachers with advanced college preparation than pupils attending smaller high schools. Only about 25 per cent of Georgia's high school teachers held the master's degree or above in 1962-63. Of these, approximately 75 per cent were in schools with 500 pupils or more. Thus, 39 per cent of the high schools held 75 per cent of the more educated teachers. Ninety-eight per cent of the high school principals in schools with 500 pupils or more held at least a master's degree, compared to a ratio of 95 per cent in schools with fewer than 500 pupils.

An analysis of the training of Georgia high school librarians shows that 47.5 per cent of those in high schools with 500 pupils or more held the master's degree in 1962-63, compared to only 21.8 per cent of the librarians in high schools with fewer than 500 pupils.

In the important area of youth guidance in Georgia high schools enrolling 500 or more pupils in 1962-63, 71.5 per cent of the counselors had master's degrees. Only 45.4 per cent of the counselors in high schools with fewer than 500 pupils had this level of training.

Programs in Georgia High Schools

The breadth of educational opportunity for Georgia's youth can be measured, partially, by the number and variety of courses and subject areas offered to them. The number of courses offered may be related to the grade organizational pattern of the school. Course credits are almost universally counted as "Carnegie Units" in grades 9-12.

Table 8 shows the modal pattern for total Carnegie Units offered in various size Georgia high schools grouped by patterns of grade organization. Generally, in each type of high school (3, 4, 5, or 6 year), more units of work were offered as school size increased. An interesting exception is noted in schools enrolling 1,000 to 1,500 pupils in 3, 4, and 5 year schools, but the *mean* of the ranges supports the basic evidence that the program tends to be more adequate in larger schools. Regardless of size, the poorest showing of units offered is in the 6-year schools.

TABLE 8

MODAL PATTERN OF TOTAL CARNEGIE UNITS OFFERED IN GRADES 9-12 IN GEORGIA HIGH SCHOOLS GROUPED BY SIZE OF SCHOOL AND TYPE OF SCHOOL, 1962-63

School Size	*Units by Type of School*			
(Pupils Enrolled)	*7-12*	*8-12*	*9-12*	*10-12*
[illegible]low 250	26-30	26-30	26-35	
[illegible]0-499	26-30	31-35	36-40	26-30
500-999	36-40	36-40	41-45	31-45
1,000-1,500	46-60	56-60	36-55	26-65
Over 1,500	61-65	51-65	51-65	61-70

The modal pattern of course units offered in the various subject areas in Georgia high schools grouped by size is shown in Table 9. The number of units offered in the basic subjects of English, mathematics, science, and social studies is fairly uniform in high schools enrolling fewer than 1,000 pupils, even for the very small high schools.

When enrollment reaches 1,000 pupils, art and industrial arts courses tend to be found, and the number of units offered in foreign languages triples from 2 to 6. Added numbers of courses in the basic subject areas of English and sciences appear when school populations exceed 1,500 while the increase in numbers of foreign language courses is most striking.

TABLE 9

MODAL NUMBER OF CARNEGIE UNITS OFFERED BY SUBJECT IN GRADES 9-12 IN GEORGIA HIGH SCHOOLS GROUPED BY SIZE, 1962-63

School Size (Pupils Enrolled)	*Art*	*Bus.*	*Eng.*	*For. Lang.*	*Math.*	*Music*	*Sci.*	*Soc. Stud.*	*Indus. Arts*
Below 100	0	1	4	2	4	0	4	5	0
100-249	0	5	4	2	4	0	4	4	0
250-499	0	5	4	2	5	0	4	4	0
500-999	0	6	4	2	5.5	2	4	4	0
1,000-1,499	2	6	4	6	6	2	4	4	4
1,500 +	3	7	5	16	6	3	5	7	4

As shown in Table 10, the greatest proportion of high school pupils in Georgia (45.4 per cent) attend high schools offering 26-40 units of work. Only 1.4 per cent of Georgia's high school youth have an average of 6 or fewer courses a year available to them. In contrast, approximately 18 per cent of the youth have an average of 14 or more courses available to them each year.

TABLE 10

NUMBER AND PER CENT DISTRIBUTION OF GEORGIA PUPILS IN GRADES 9-12 BY NUMBER OF COURSE UNITS AVAILABLE TO THEM, 1962-63

Units Offered	*Number of 9-12 Pupils*	*Per Cent*
25 or below	2,428	1.4
26-40	84,807	45.4
41-55	65,908	35.4
56-70	27,149	14.6
71 +	5,952	3.2
Totals	186,244	100.0

The survey staff calculated the percentage of high school students to whom the modal number of course units were available in the various subject areas. As is shown in Table 11, the modal points for most subject areas are in the 2-4 unit range, with high exception being business education (6 units) and mathematics (6 units). It should be noted that except for the area special schools, 71 per cent of Georgia's high school children had no vocational-technical courses available to them in 1962-63, and almost one-third of these youth had no opportunity to study industrial arts.

TABLE 11

MODAL NUMBER OF "CARNEGIE UNITS" AVAILABLE BY SUBJECT AREA AND PER CENT OF PUPILS TO WHOM MODAL NUMBER OF UNITS WERE AVAILABLE, 1962-63

Subject Area	*Modal Number of Units Available*	*Per Cent of Pupils to Whom Modal Units are Available*
Agriculture	0	45
Arts	0	56
Business Education	6	22
Foreign Languages	2	56
Health	2	35
Home Economics	3	44
Industrial Arts	0	32
Language Arts	4	51
Music	2	35
Mathematics	6	31
Science	4	53
Social Science	4	37
Vocational-Technical	0	71

Teachers Teaching Out of Certificated Fields

Tables 12, 13, and 14 give the percentage of Georgia youth taught various subjects in 1962-63 by teachers not having certificated endorsement for the particular subject. The largest percentage of pupils taught by those teaching out of certificated

TABLE 12

PER CENT OF GEORGIA YOUTH TAUGHT MATHEMATICS, SCIENCE, AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE BY NONCERTIFICATED TEACHERS, 1962-63

	Per Cent		
School Size	*Math*	*Science*	*Languages*
Below 500	13.0	18.0	13.0
500-999	13.0	15.0	8.0
1,00-1,499	6.0	14.0	6.0
1,500+	3.0	5.0	0.5

TABLE 13

PER CENT OF GEORGIA YOUTH TAUGHT ENGLISH, SOCIAL STUDIES, AND BUSINESS EDUCATION BY NONCERTIFICATED TEACHERS, 1962-63

	Per Cent		
School Size	*English*	*Social Studies*	*Business Education*
Below 500	6.3	10.8	10.0
500-999	5.2	5.8	2.2
1,000-1,499	1.6	4.0	2.8
1,500+	0.8	1.9	0.8

TABLE 14

PER CENT OF GEORGIA YOUTH TAUGHT ART, HEALTH, AND MUSIC BY NONCERTIFICATED TEACHERS, 1962-63

School Size	*Per Cent* *Art*	 *Health*	 *Music*
Below 500	2.5	12.9	7.1
500-999	12.1	6.6	1.8
1,000-1,499	2.6	6.0	0.3
1,500+	0.0	4.7	0.0

fields was found in small high schools. Teachers working in the area of their certification in all fields increased as the size of the high school increased. Larger percentages of pupils were instructed in science by noncertificated teachers, regardless of the size of school, than in any other subject area.

Class Size in Georgia High Schools

Table 15 shows that, in general, the smallest classes and, therefore, those most costly per pupil are to be found in the smallest high schools. Most Georgia high school class sizes in 1962-63 fell in the range of 21-35 pupils. The mode of class sizes for high schools of 500 or more pupils is in the 26-30 pupil range, which is the optimum size for effective teaching without undue strain on the teacher, while providing instruction at a reasonable per pupil cost.

TABLE 15

PER CENT OF CLASSES OF VARIOUS SIZES BY SIZE OF SCHOOL, 1962-63

School Size (Pupils Enrolled)	*Per Cent of Classes in Following Class Size Pupil Ranges:* *1-10*	 *11-15*	 *16-20*	 *21-25*	 *26-30*	 *31-35*	 *36-40*
Below 100	11.2	23.2	28.8	20.0			
100-249		14.0	18.8	20.2	20.4		
250-499			13.3	19.7	24.5	20.8	
500-999			11.3	18.1	30.5	21.1	
1,000-1,499			9.3	19.2	32.6	22.7	
1,500-1,999				14.7	30.6	26.5	12.3
2,000+				13.6	28.9	24.5	19.3

The general picture obtained from the preceding tabular data and analysis is that Georgia high schools with over 500 students have more adequate programs and better prepared instructional staff than do high schools with fewer than 500 pupils enrolled. The most adequate programs and best prepared teachers are found in high schools with over 1,500 pupils.

These findings are not unique to Georgia. A study of more than 3,700 high schools in nine southern states, including Georgia, support the conclusion reached on the effect of school size on program adequacy in Georgia high schools.

In the light of the preceding discussion, the present size distribution of Georgia high schools takes on added significance. During 1962-63, the State operated 245, or 59 per cent of its high schools, with fewer than 500 pupils. Only 20 high schools, or approximately 5 per cent of the total, enrolled as many as 1,500 pupils. It is clear, therefore, that the majority of Georgia's high schools cannot offer the programs or supporting services necessary to make secondary school education a positive force in Georgia's plan for progress.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Some of the data used to demonstrate the inadequacies of the program of secondary education in Georgia also reflect on the adequacy of the program of elementary education. The data on failure and retardation in the elementary grades, reported earlier in Table 5, reflect the inadequacies of the curriculum in the elementary schools. Dropout data on the elementary school age pupils were shown in Table 6. Field studies have shown repeatedly that the foundation for later dropout and failure is laid in poor home environment and early school experiences. If the dropout loss among Georgia's youth is to be significantly reduced, dramatic improvements must be made in the organization and operation of elementary schools in the State.

Schools can no longer afford to concentrate their efforts primarily on one group of children, to the partial or total exclusion of other groups of children. Slow, average, and high ability pupils must be served equally well and must be helped to develop their full potentialities. Underdeveloped persons of any ability level are likely to become a burden to themselves, their families, and their society in future years. Even in 1965 the undereducated of past decades place a heavy burden on the conscience and physical resources of the more fortunate in America. Unemployment, crime, general social unrest, and many other problems of the day frequently can be related to an inadequate educational preparation.

Characteristics of a Good Elementary School

Many adults in Georgia and elsewhere in the United States vividly recall their own experiences in a rural, one- or two-teacher elementary school. It is pleasant to reminisce about the days when schools consisted of one room, a path, cotton vacation each fall, and a sincere, half-educated, young teacher who did her best to provide instruction in all subjects and at every grade level.

These schools, their teachers, and a world for which their educational programs were adequate have all disappeared from Georgia. Georgia children of today need an enriched curriculum, more highly trained teachers, and an array of specialized facilities if they are to become ready for high school, college, and life itself in the twenty-first century. Most of the current discussion of quality education is centered around high school programs and their ability to prepare students for college and careers. For this reason, it would be well to discuss briefly some of the standards that a good elementary school should strive for in preparing the student for high school.

Administrative services. The operation of a modern elementary school program is a tremendously complicated task. If classroom teachers are to be left free for work with children, if the efforts of one teacher are to be coordinated with those of others, and if adequate programs of specialized services are to be established and maintained, a nonteaching, supervising elementary school principal is needed to head the school. Such a person should have a record of successful elementary school teaching, should have graduate training in school administration and supervision, and should possess the personal characteristics necessary to work closely with young children and their teachers.

Secretarial services. The elementary school principal should have at least one full-time secretary to relieve him and his staff of unnecessary clerical tasks. Principals and teachers obviously should not be forced to waste their time in answering the telephone, operating the duplicating machines, or maintaining the filing system of the school. On the other hand, if the school is to operate efficiently all of these things must be done.

Supervisory and consultant services. Most elementary schools in Georgia operate on a self-contained or modified self-contained classroom plan where teachers are expected to assume major responsibility for eight or ten subject areas. The average individual is not equipped upon college graduation to do an excellent job in mathematics, science, social studies, music, art, health and safety, physical education, and the language arts. Even if a teacher had superior capabilities in each subject area when he graduated from college, his knowledge would likely become out of date within a few years.

Elementary school teachers, therefore, need to have available to them the services of helping teachers, subject area consultants, and general supervisors who will work with them in curriculum development and over-all improvement of the instructional program. School systems enrolling from 1,000 to 2,000 elementary school pupils cannot afford a full staff of these specialists. Even in large school systems which persist in maintaining very small attendance centers, it is difficult to schedule maximum use of specialized services.

Libraries. According to the American Library Association, every child should have access to a book collection of from 6,000 to 10,000 volumes. The cost of such a collection and the reference material, shelving, and furniture to accompany it can easily total $20,000 or $25,000. While such an expenditure can be justified readily for schools enrolling 500 to 700 pupils, smaller attendance centers will usually have to settle for inadequate materials and facilities.

Librarians. An elementary school child should have contact with a trained children's librarian each week. The librarian should show him how to use reference materials, introduce him to new books, and instruct him in the use of a library as a research tool. The librarian also should have free time to work with teachers in coordinating library services with the regular instructional program.

Elementary schools enrolling from 175 to 300 pupils can function with a half-time librarian. Larger schools need one or more full-time librarians. Whenever possible, the librarian should have an assistant to handle routine mending and clerical tasks.

Health services. Many vision, hearing, and other physical defects first become apparent in the elementary school years. Unless they are detected early, the child suffers needless educational retardation. In addition, young children are susceptible to a great number of common childhood diseases, some of which can become quite serious.

A trained nurse should be available to work with other members of the elementary school staff, with parents, and with children in providing health services. An occasional visit by the nurse is not enough. She should be in the school a part of every day.

Guidance and counseling. Much is made of the fact that youths in high school need to have access to extensive guidance and counseling services. Many secondary schools are moving to provide three or four times as many guidance counselors as were available in 1960. Dr. James B. Conant and others recently have recommended that one full-time trained guidance counselor be provided for each 250 high school pupils.

Persons experienced in the field often point out that the emotional problems which cause high school youths to drop out of school appear in the elementary school years. Good elementary schools of the future will need the services of a part- or full-time counselor to work with children who show signs of developing emotional disturbance or social maladjustment.

Services for exceptional children. Authorities in the field estimate that about 8 per cent of the children in an average community differ from the norm enough to require a special education program. Gifted, mentally handicapped, emotionally disturbed, and physically impaired children all can progress under the guidance of specially trained personnel, if they are provided with the adapted facilities and materials required to work with these children.

In most cases, even a relatively large elementary school of from 600 to 700 pupils will not have sufficient population to justify its own special education rooms. When exceptional children from two or more large schools are pooled, however, it is possible to provide specialized services in a regular school setting. For these children to receive a good education, then, it is necessary to either maintain a school district large enough to include minimum enrollments for special education classes or to work out a cooperative agreement among school districts.

Physical facilities. In addition to a well stocked and equipped school library, discussed earlier, an elementary school should have a series of outdoor play areas and indoor space designed for the physical education program. It also should be provided with a cafeteria equipped to serve a nutritious lunch, a health room for the school nurse, an administrative suite for the principal and secretarial staff, and one or more resource rooms for the use of guidance counselors, speech therapists, remedial teachers, and others who come to the school to work with children outside the regular classroom setting.

Summary

From the above discussions, it is obvious that if Georgia children are to receive an excellent education—which is likely to be a minimum program within a few years—larger elementary schools must be provided. The research supported a 500-to 700-pupil size range. Elementary schools with 1,000 or more pupil population, on the other hand, are likely to become factory-like in their operation. Principals become completely tied up in management aspects of their jobs and must work through assistant principals, head teachers, or secretaries. Individual children of five, six, or seven years of age can easily become lost in such an operation, negating all of the advantages which might be gained by providing increased specialized facilities and services in the building. The major focus of American education, now as never before, must be in an ability to discover and help develop the unique characteristics of each child. Without that focus, the whole system will fail in its mission.

STAFFING FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The discussion of inadequacies in the present state programs of elementary and secondary education emphasizes that innovations of major scope are required throughout the instructional programs, especially in the smaller school systems. It seems clear that this will not happen without qualified educational leadership at the local school system level.

The report of the Joint House and Senate Education Study Committee quoted previously in this discussion commented on the quality of local school administration in Georgia:

> Many instances of poor administration on the local level were reported to the Committee. There is great concern about the lack of qualification and lack of educational leadership in many system superintendents. (4)

Small school districts usually do not employ the most highly qualified superintendents. In the first place, the challenge to superiority is lacking. In the second place, the salaries are much too low to command the limited supply of available talent. In addition, small districts are noted for penuriousness in financial support and for "nit-picking" local politics that defeat whatever aspiration an administrator might have for excellence in his own performance. The small school district administrator is rather like an "Admiral in the Swiss navy," being required to serve as both Captain and crew.

The issue is especially critical in Georgia. The State Department of Education reported in 1965 that "4 superintendents have less than 4 years of college training, and 34 have 6-year certificates." Only 34 out of 196! The national association of superintendents now requires a six-year planned program of preparation for admission to the organization. A 5-year master's degree is normally expected of teachers and principals in better school systems. It is, therefore, evident that the proposed standard requiring only a master's degree for superintendents is low and is still not adequately met.

Specialized Staff Services

Every school employee justifies his cost with some type of service, direct or indirect, to pupils and teachers. Some who are not engaged in the teaching-learning process are in daily contact with pupils (bus drivers); others have more limited contact but are equally important (visiting teacher); and still others may have no contact (maintenance, purchasing, etc.) but are essential. The truism that the teacher is the most important factor in learning can be extended to the statement that personal services hold the key to quality education. Indeed, the personal service payroll consumes 80-90 per cent of the current expense dollar in public education, so that the educational opportunity bought by the school dollar is chiefly personal services, specialists preferred.

The chief differences among schools and school systems can be traced to differences in the adequacy of personal services rendered, which is a function of *who* and *how many* are employed. Any major enterprise, including public education, can show that personal services are upgraded with supervision, coordination, and effective leadership and that efficiency is increased by providing adequate tools for the job. For this reason quality and adequacy run hand in hand with the number and competence of staff services provided in school systems. Some of these services—principal, librarian, and counselor—are in such constant demand that they are provided in every good school. Others, such as a school physician or a research specialist, may serve the entire system.

Criteria of minimum school size frequently are expressed in terms of staff positions: "a nonteaching principal," "a full-time trained librarian," and "one guidance specialist for each 300-500 pupils." When curriculum and teaching experts arrive at their minimum requirements of "three sections per grade taught" in order to provide for individual differences in ability and breadth of program, their criteria are compatible and in harmony with staffing standards. Georgia's *Recommended Standards,** dated April 21, 1965, state with justification that the minimum goal for a school center *should* be:

A nonteaching certified principal
A nonteaching certified librarian
One or more guidance counselors
One or more school clerks
Custodial and maid service
Lunchroom manager

The school system staff also has some definite criteria in the *Recommended Standards.* The *School Code* names the superintendent as one such person. Specialists in teacher and pupil personnel services identify many technical and professional requirements which only specialists can render. Desirably, school systems should be large enough to provide these services and others:

Attendance—Visiting teacher

Business administration—Data Processing

Instructional supervision
  Arts and graphics—health—language arts—music education—special education—vocational and adult education

Pupil Service Coordination
  Food services—guidance—dental hygiene—nursing—psychological—speech therapy—transportation—visual aids—welfare and social work

Plant Management
  Planning—custodial—maintenance
Research and Development

No unit measures for allocating these central staff positions can be adopted. General practice indicates one supervisor for about 40 teachers, but school systems vary in the academic area specialist they choose first. A school nurse generally is

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*Committee on Standards, *Recommended Standards for Elementary and Secondary Schools in Georgia,* Report to the Georgia State Board of Education, April 21, 1965 (Mimeo).

assigned 2,000 pupils. One educational psychologist is recommended for each 5,000 pupils in large school systems, but there is a variety of fields in which various psychologists may specialize: educational measurement; psychiatry; psychometry; emotional disturbances; social psychology; and learning psychology. Thus, a system of about 15,000 pupils could probably justify three of these types of psychological technicians. In the absence of general criteria, central staff ratios are most frequently cited on the basis of 1 per 375 pupils in ADA, but there is no guidance as to priorities, except general practice in other states where the critical importance of these services is recognized.

Seven Ohio school systems, each enrolling from 10,000 to 20,000 pupils, show the following among their 1964-65 staff positions:

Staff Position	*Average No. Employed*
Principals	25.0
Supervisors	8.3
Counselors (H. S.)	13.0
Psychologists	2.3
Speech Therapists	3.3
Nurses	4.3
Librarians	8.0
Secretaries	46.0
Asst. Superintendents	3.0
A-V Coordinators	1.0

To make a practical application of staffing practice for Georgia, a theoretical school system of 10,000 pupils has been derived from average enrollment distributions among four selected Georgia systems which now enroll at least this many pupils (Clarke, Gwinnett, Laurens-Dublin, and Spalding). Such a hypothetical system would have the following grade distribution:

Grade 1	1,120		Grade 8	820	
2	1,005		9	790	
3	980		10	695	
4	930		11	560	
5	905		12	430	3,295
6	895				
7	870	6,705		Total	10,000

The application of local high school criteria has been on two bases: minimum enrollment of 500 and a minimum of 100 seniors in each school. For a grades 8-12 five-year high school of 500, input in Grade 8 must be 124 pupils. Grade 12 would have only 66 pupils. For a Grade 12 class of 100 pupils, input in Grade 8 would have to be 188, and total school enrollment would be 758 students.

A theoretical organization plan for this system of 10,000 pupils, based upon the 6-3-3 pattern of operation, might be as follows:

Senior high schools (10-12)	3 of 560 avg. size
Junior high schools (7-9)	5 of 500 avg. size
Elementary schools (1-6)	10 of 500 avg. size

Allotted Teachers:	Elementary	223
	Secondary	122
	Add'l. Inst. Staff	50
		395

Local Service Personnel		*Systemwide Service Personnel*	
Principals	18	Superintendent	1
Librarians	13	Asst. Supts.	2
Counselors	18	Coordinators	8
Lunch managers	18	Business office	4
Custodians	44	Supervisors	5
Clerks	18	Visiting teachers	2
Bus drivers	?	Speech therapists	2
		Nurses	4
		Psychologist	1
		Secretaries	15
		Plant foremen	5

The 1963-64 annual report to the General Assembly tabulates "system-wide personnel" in Table IX, ADA in Table VIII, and "noninstructional employees" for local schools in Table X. The sample systems used in the present survey range from no systemwide staff reported by Glascock, Chattahoochee, and West Point and the 1 for 1,271 pupils in Hogansville to 22 reported by LaGrange for 5,384 pupils in ADA, giving a ratio of 1 per 245.

The following large county systems were checked as a basis of comparison:

System	*Systemwide Staff Positions*	*Ratio per ADA*
Bibb County	74	435
Clarke County	28	315
DeKalb County	107	505
Fulton County	114	240
Glynn County	27	401
Muscogee County	128	279
Average		362.5

It should be noted that the average for these larger and broader school programs is quite close to the "rule of thumb" of 375 in a medium sized system. Ratios for all school systems with over 10,000 pupils in ADA varied from 1 per 163 to 1 per 814, however, indicating a wide range in local effort even among large systems.

If the staff personnel assigned to individual schools are included, the staff-pupil ratio becomes smaller. Griffiths and others (2, pp. 300-306) cite ratios of from 256:1 to 300:1 when local school staffs are included, and a minimum of 25 full-time administrators and supervisors for an ADA of 5,000; whereas Dawson's data, reduced 25 per cent to modern pupil-teacher ratios, would suggest 31 central staff employees for 9,000 pupils, a ratio of 290:1. Georgia should not attempt to establish a general staffing pattern, but should seek a criterion of enrollment which can afford adequate positions.

SUMMARY OF THE CRITERIA FOR ADEQUATE SCHOOL DISTRICT AND SCHOOL ATTENDANCE CENTER ORGANIZATION

Preceding sections of the survey report have suggested the need for a basic reorganization of Georgia school districts. Particular emphasis has been placed on establishment of districts which are large enough to offer a comprehensive educational program at a reasonable cost. A review of educational research, for example, led to the conclusion that a school district should serve from 15,000 to 20,000 pupils, with 10,000 pupils as a minimum. In a school system of that minimum size, special programs, specialized personnel, and supporting services can be offered most economically. In particular, such an administrative unit could command quality of educational leadership in the superintendent and in the personnel that would be necessary in the staff and services positions. The criterion for excellence is *staff leadership* for educational planning and personal services. The methods by which local administrative leadership is selected must come in for close scrutiny. Elected officials, whether they are in education or other governmental functions, must continuously "run" for office. It would be much better if the local boards of education were elected on a nonpartisan basis, and the superintendent of schools was then selected by the elected board on the basis of high professional qualifications to administer the educational program best suited for that particular district.

The local administrative unit is the unit which plans, staffs, finances, operates, and services the programs of education carried on in the elementary and secondary school attendance centers. A local school administrative unit having 10,000 students should be capable of attracting the best educational leadership; carrying on research, experimentation, pupil adjustments, and instructional innovation; and effecting proper coordination with the other educational agencies in the State.

In view of the diverse problems of program, dropouts, and personnel, the State should provide for fewer and for much larger local school administrative units. There is reason and research to support the policy that no high school should be approved with fewer than 100 academics in the graduating class. Thus, it appears that high school attendance centers within the State should enroll at least 500 pupils, with from 800 to 1,200 pupil attendance centers provided whenever feasible. Future junior high school centers in Georgia should enroll from 500 to 1,200 pupils and no junior high school should be designed and operated for fewer than 300 pupils. Elementary school attendance centers in the State should serve a minimum of 175 pupils in grades 1-6. The analysis indicates that most elementary schools should enroll 300 or more pupils, with from 500 to 700 pupil schools wherever transportation and other limiting factors will permit. These are characteristics of school systems that are noted for their quality programs, which Georgia has set as the goal of the M.F.P.E.

GEORGIA SCHOOL DISTRICTS WHICH CURRENTLY MEET SURVEY CRITERIA

It would be ideal if model school systems, based on the criteria developed by the survey staff, could be established now and operated experimentally in Georgia. The evidence obtained in such experiments would provide answers to many questions concerning the feasibility and potential advantages of larger school attendance and district units.

Time and circumstance, of course, hardly allow such large scale experiments. Fortunately, Georgia already has several school districts that meet most of the criteria established by the survey staff. To determine to what extent increased size and centralized operations may have resulted in increased educational opportunities for boys and girls, visits were made to some of these districts. Salient features of two of these districts are described in the sections which follow.

School District A

District A is a unified city-county system serving a population of approximately 50,000 people. In 1964-65, about 10,000 children attended elementary and secondary schools in the district.

School District A is somewhat unique in Georgia in that it has been predominantly urban for almost a century. It is, however, located in the center of an extensive rural area and has been the recipient of large numbers of migrants from surrounding farms. Industrial development within the district has absorbed many of these workers in recent years.

Associated with migration from the rural areas has come a drying up of unskilled farm jobs. Because of automation and other advances, the industries and service institutions of the county are unable to offer extensive employment for men and women without specialized skills. Recently, leading citizens have become quite interested in broadening the program of technical training opportunities for the unskilled and transient workers of the community.

School attendance centers. District A operates 16 public schools, all of them approved by the Georgia Accrediting Commission. In addition, the district coordinates adult, vocational, and technical education programs in the community.

The smallest elementary school in District A enrolls more than 170 pupils and has at least one teacher per grade. Most of the district's elementary schools are considerably larger, falling well within the recommended 500 to 700 pupil range.

A separate system of junior high school education has been developed in the county, something not found in most Georgia school districts. District A recognizes that adolescents have unique problems and needs and provides a specialized program which bridges the gap between the elementary schools and the senior high school program.

Senior high schools in District A have pupil enrollments in the 800 to 1,400 pupil range. Thus, they fall generally within the pattern recommended by available research and the survey staff report.

Instructional programs. Probably the most impressive characteristic of the instructional program in District A is the range and breadth of subject offerings. Sequential programs in art, music, science, and physical education are offered in the elementary schools, in addition to the usual skill and tool subjects. High school pupils also are provided a comprehensive program designed to serve those who wish to continue on to college, those who wish to develop an employable skill, and those who desire a general program leading to the high school diploma.

Children with handicaps who reside in School District A are able to receive extensive help. Underachievers, those with speech handicaps, the mentally retarded, and other pupils with special problems are offered programs of assistance within the framework of the public schools and in cooperation with other community agencies. Through agreements with an institution of higher education located in the school district, it is possible to refer children to a reading clinic, a health center, a center for psychological services, and other special facilities. Relationships with the local college also involve consultant help, work with student teachers and interns, and provision of inservice education courses for personnel of the district.

Administrative leadership. In addition to a widely respected superintendent of schools who heads the total program, specialized managerial and administrative functions are carried on by a supervisor of buildings and grounds, a business manager, and a supervisor of transportation. Employment of these specialists not only permits efficient and well run physical plant, transportation, and business affairs operations, but it also releases the superintendent of schools for proper attention to community relations and instructional leadership. Among other things, the superintendent is able to spend considerable time working with an advisory council which is composed of the associate superintendent and building principals in the school system. The work of the advisory council is concerned primarily with instruction and administrative matters directly related to instruction.

Instructional leadership. During the 1964-65 school year, the central office staff of District A has been reorganized, resulting in a general upgrading of instructional personnel and functions. By the 1965-66 school year, it is anticipated that the central office staff will include an associate superintendent for curriculum and instruction, two directors of curriculum, a director of pupil personnel, and a director of research. The latter position is entirely new to District A and comparatively rare in the state of Georgia. The director of research will devote most of his time to establishing and conducting studies related to instructional improvement.

The existing pattern of instructional supervision will be continued in the 1965-66 school year. The number, area of specialization, and grades served by the six supervisors are indicated in Table 16.

TABLE 16

NUMBER, AREA, AND GRADES SERVED BY SUPERVISORS IN DISTRICT A

Subject Area	*Number*	*Grade Level Served*
Music	2	1-6
Physical Education	1	1-6
Art	2	1-6
Mathematics	1	7-12

Specialized services. Six other supervisors serve on the central office staff of District A. Some work directly in the classroom as teachers, others are coordinators with duties related to instruction. A third group is composed primarily of service personnel. The field of specialization, grade level served, and number of specialists in each field are shown in Table 17.

TABLE 17

SPECIALIZED SERVICES PROVIDED IN DISTRICT A

Area or Field	*Number*	*Grade Level Served*
Library Services	1	1-12 (emphasis on 1-6)
Visiting Teachers	2	1-12
Speech Therapists	2	1-12
Lunchroom Services	1	1-12

Peaks of strength. School District A has had a new mathematics program for at least five years. Part of the success of the new program is attributable to the employment of a consultant from a midwestern university who has worked with teachers, principals, and members of the supervisory staff on a regular basis. The school district has participated in a number of other innovations, including nongraded primaries, team teaching, summer school for high school students, and special education services for exceptional children.

An outstanding characteristic of the district has been a willingness to place the best qualified teachers in schools for culturally deprived youngsters. Additional compensatory education services for deprived youngsters are planned for the 1965-66 school term.

The future. Even though it is at or near the minimum recommended size for a Georgia school system, District A would benefit from expansion. Five adjoining counties are well within the natural geographic and economic trade area of the district. Three of them lost population between the 1950 and 1960 federal censuses, while District A gained more than 20 per cent in total population.

Examination of maps and visits to the area indicate that it would be possible to organize and operate attendance centers within the six counties without transporting pupils for excessive distances. The total area would not be too large to administer effectively. The average daily school membership of such a combination would be from 18,000 to 20,000 pupils, roughly double the present membership of District A but within the optimum range indicated by research.

A school district of this size could offer expanded services to all teachers and children. Supervisors and curriculum coordinators in fields such as social studies, science, language arts, and foreign languages could be made available to the staff on a regular basis, rather than on a contract, per diem, basis as must now be done.

School District B

School District B covers about two-thirds of a large county in northwest Georgia. Total population of the school district exceeds 100,000 persons, with slightly over 30,000 pupils enrolled in grades 1-12. Much of the district's territory is covered by suburban residential developments and light industries, but some sections are completely rural.

Educators and other community planners in the county face tremendous problems in anticipating and making proper preparations for further population expansion. One of the attractions of the area undoubtedly is its school system, reputed to be one of the best in Georgia.

School attendance centers. Despite its large total enrollment, District B still maintains several small elementary schools. Overall, however, around 95 per cent of the elementary school pupils in the district attend centers which serve more than 300 children.

As in most other Georgia systems, District B follows a 7-5 pattern of grade organization. Junior high schools are not a part of the usual operation, although two schools serve grades 8-10.

All five-year high schools in District B are accredited, both by the State and the Southern Association of Colleges and

Schools. The senior high schools of the district generally serve large enrollments, well within the optimum size range recommended by the research in the field and the survey report.

Instructional programs. School District B provides a broad instructional program at all grade levels. Music, art, physical education, and other areas neglected in some school systems are offered at every grade level. A maximum effort is made to coordinate activities at one grade level or within one school with those in other grades and schools. On the other hand, individual teachers in the district are given considerable freedom in planning and carrying out programs designed to meet the needs of the particular group of youngsters in their classrooms.

Special education services for exceptional children are not so extensive in District B as might be expected. To some degree, these pupils are given individualized instruction within a regular classroom setting. This approach is made possible not only by generally good facilities and extensive assistance for the regular teacher, but also by small classes. Table 18 compares average teacher-pupil ratios in District B schools with the state average.

TABLE 18

TEACHER-PUPIL RATIOS IN DISTRICT B AND OTHER GEORGIA SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1963-64

School System	*White Pupils*			*Negro Pupils*			*Total, Both Races*
	Grades 1-7	*Grades 8-12*	*Total*	*Grades 1-7*	*Grades 8-12*	*Total*	
District B	1:23	1:18	1:21	1:21	1:16	1:19	1:21
State Average	1:27	1:21	1:24	1:27	1:21	1:25	1:25

Source: *Georgia Public Schools Teacher-Pupil Ratio*, 1963-64. State Department of Education, September, 1964, pp. 1-5.

Administrative leadership. In addition to a competent, highly respected, superintendent of schools and two assistant superintendents—one in charge of curriculum and instruction and the other in charge of buildings, maintenance, and operations—School District B has directors for finance, personnel, transportation, maintenance, and school lunch services.

Administration of the school district presents some unique difficulties because of its elongated shape (it is nearly 75 miles from one end to the other) and the fact that a major city with its own school system is located across the center of the county. Maintenance crews, for example, often are forced to travel long distances from one job to another to handle emergency work.

These problems are countered to some extent by careful organization of service crews and by dividing the county for some purposes. Undoubtedly, further decentralization will become necessary as the number of pupils and schools increases.

Instructional leadership. A curriculum director and staff of helping teachers provide general supervision and leadership for the elementary grades. Each helping teacher works with a group of schools, serving both nontenure and tenure teachers. Nontenure elementary school teachers, particularly, are given a great deal of assistance and inservice training. Tenure teachers in the elementary schools are visited on a less frequent basis, but adequate provision is made to render assistance whenever it is needed. Every effort is made to relieve helping teachers of any administrative or supervisory function. Teachers and principals are asked not to burden them with administrative type problems and it is clearly specified that helping teachers should spend all of their time in classrooms. This policy not only directs the efforts of the helping teacher to the classroom—where it is most needed—but also tends to preserve the autonomy of the individual school principal.

Music, physical education, art, and other subject fields are coordinated at all grade levels by specialists operating out of District B central offices. Consultants in social studies, language arts, science, mathematics, business education, and home economics work with appropriate high school staff members.

Peaks of strength. While a number of innovations and outstanding practices are now in progress in District B, including an excellent school library program, nongrading, team teaching, and the like, the procedures which have been developed for inducting new elementary school teachers deserve special notice. Many school systems in the United States face the necessity of employing large numbers of new teachers each year, but few provide an intensive, planned program to assist them in developing their full potentialities. School District B is a notable exception.

First year nontenure teachers in the elementary schools are briefed initially on administrative policies and are introduced to consultants in the various curricular areas. Each subject area consultant is given an hour or more at a meeting before school opens to explain his area, demonstrate some appropriate teaching approaches, and describe the services available through his office. After school has been open for about two months, teachers in the two halves of the district are brought together for separate "materials fairs" where they have an opportunity to examine outstanding posters, charts, and other items from elementary school classrooms in the county. At another materials fair, held late in the spring, the new teachers themselves bring materials and share ideas.

During this first year in District B classrooms, new teachers are visited on a regular basis. Helping teachers not only observe in the classrooms, but take an active part in the planning and teaching process. Thus, a partnership, rather than an inspection relationship, is developed early among members of the central office staff and classroom teachers of the district.

Second year nontenure teachers in the elementary schools are given intensive training in techniques of reading and the other language arts. After a preschool workshop with a consultant from one of the leading textbook publishers, helping teachers arrange to schedule many of their visits for the reading or language skill class periods. The helping teachers assist in planning a full day's reading activity, demonstrate approaches to reading instruction, and participate in work with pupils in the classroom.

Two or three times during the school year, second year nontenure elementary school teachers are brought together to share their experiences. Methods of grouping, approaches to teaching a reading group, and techniques for helping individual children with serious reading problems are discussed and evaluated. Throughout, the teachers are encouraged to try new ideas of their own.

Third year nontenure elementary school teachers concentrate on improving the quality of unit teaching in their classrooms. After the preschool workshop, each one chooses a special project for the year or does a "breadth and depth" unit of work with her group. Most choose the breadth and depth unit. In this activity, the teacher is asked to utilize as many material and human resources as possible, and to refine her skill in integrating various kinds of content and activities into a coordinated program.

Helping teachers are available to assist the third year teacher and sharing sessions are held, as in previous years. The principal, of course, is closely involved in all of this activity and no attempt is made to circumvent or usurp his administrative and supervisory prerogatives. By the end of her third year, the new District B teacher has undergone an intensive and valuable "on-the-job-training" which should not only enhance her competence in that system but also in future positions. The main beneficiaries, however, are the boys and girls in District B who receive a superior instructional program because of the orientation procedures.

The future. School District B can expect to keep growing and to face continuing problems of providing facilities and staff for children. However, the present nucleus of professional talent and operating programs should be able to overcome these problems as they appear.

Per pupil cost of operation in District B is somewhat higher than the average for Georgia but is still well below the national average. One reason that per pupil expenditures in the District are higher than the average for Georgia, of course, is the fact that class sizes have been held down to reasonable levels. Few could argue that such a policy is extravagant.

Summary

As indicated in the preceding discussions, the survey staff is convinced that both school District A and school District B are currently offering programs which are superior in many respects. The survey staff feels that many of the strengths to be found in these two Georgia school districts are a result of sufficient size.

Frequent reference is made in Georgia to outstanding persons who work in each of these two districts. This, too, is significant. The ability to attract and hold topflight personnel often is a function of school district size. Indeed, the ability to employ and hold any personnel with highly desirable, but specialized, competencies requires a pupil population large enough to justify their full-time services. In cases where more highly specialized services, such as classes for the blind, are needed but cannot be justified even in a large school system, interdistrict agreements should be reached for provision of educational services.

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CHAPTER 4

APPLICATION OF CRITERIA TO SELECTED CASES

The most immediate educational concern of the individual child and his parents is the particular school which the child attends and the adequacy of the program offered at his grade level. To the student in any elementary or secondary school, it makes little difference whether his school board is operating one, two, or a dozen similar schools. Measures of effectiveness of entire school systems must be taken where the individual child is taught.

Despite this truism, the number of schools operated by a district is important to the pupil. It is equally important, though of differing interest, to parents and to childless taxpayers. The administrative, supervisory, and technical services that support and strengthen a school are increased in quantity and quality as more schools are added to the system.

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN SELECTED AREAS

Some states, such as New York, have a policy that each district should operate at least one K-6 elementary school and one 7-12 high school, although it is not compulsory. Others, such as Oklahoma, permit a school district to operate only one elementary school. Still others tolerate districts that operate no school, but gain a tax advantage when they contract for services elsewhere. In none of these minimum situations is there a staff of resource specialists to upgrade the quality of educational experiences offered the individual child. If the system is larger, with additional school centers, these specialists are more justifiable, the tax base tends to broaden, the cost per pupil in a given subject declines, and the educational opportunities increase. Thus, the child, the parent, and the taxpayer all benefit from larger administrative units.

Probably the most difficult problem in planning educational reorganization is keeping in mind the distinct separateness of *local school* criteria and *school system* criteria, while preserving an understanding of their inseparable relationships. For example, several southern states have maintained basically county school district systems for almost a century, but until recently a large number of one-room schools was operated by these large districts. Simultaneously, most of these states with basic county units have given autonomy and independence to some small-town districts. Making school systems larger does not guarantee reorganization of school centers, but it makes it easier to do so.

Georgia has experienced school organization developments very much like those cited, but the lessons learned must be remembered as one reviews the nine case studies. The feasibility of three high schools for Chattahoochee, Marion, Stewart, and Webster counties is reported in the following pages, but emphasis is on a school center. There is no evidence that these four counties, no more and no less, should be constituted as a single district of school government. Indeed, the four together can provide fewer than 5,000 pupils.

It is possible that the fewer than 1,000 pupils in Schley County and the 606 pupils in Quitman County should be included in a *six-county* school district. Or, it might be feasible to administer from Columbus all the schools in these four counties plus those in Talbot and Harris counties. There is no way to test the merits of these alternatives, for *any* of these options should afford the children in any one of the four counties a broader, richer, higher quality educational opportunity at lower per capita cost than they could otherwise have. This is the purpose of school system reorganization.

Much of reorganization planning must be done arbitrarily. Travel over the counties confirms the fact that the four-county area could be administered as a single school system with greater economy, efficiency, and adequacy than could be done separately. The same conclusion applies to Quitman, Randolph, Clay, and Calhoun counties; but it probably would apply also if Stewart, Webster, and Terrell counties were combined with these four. Such a seven-county area would lie almost wholly within a 30-mile radius of Cuthbert, and any central staff services provided could be administered quite efficiently in an area of this size. Whereas school attendance centers have definite limits to their service areas in terms of pupil travel time, these criteria are not applicable to school system service areas. A radius of either one hour by automobile or 40 miles by road probably would be arbitrary but quite reasonable limits. Georgia has indicated that a 50-mile radius is reasonable for vocational school students. Certainly, many areas larger than this are served by single boards and their professional staffs. A reasonable service area is closer to Senatorial District size rather than county size.

Within outside limits and with sufficient population density, there is no reason why school systems should not be smaller than a county. However, no justification for a smaller system was found in the nine case studies, including the Rome or LaGrange city systems. Neither of these urban centers and their suburbs should be permitted to operate separately, for there are too few children in the remaining parts of these counties and trade areas to afford optimum school systems.

No reason was found to require school system boundaries to follow county lines. Of course, boundary conformity with a county or some other civil unit facilitates administration of the ad valorem tax program and coordination with other civil government services. A school district boundary could easily follow the meander line of a creek or river, for example, if it were sensible to do so. The important point is that boundaries, wherever drawn, should be definite, clearly established, and generally known, in the manner of the Congressional and Senatorial districts.

Respect for Local Interests

One of the differences between the criteria for local schools and local school systems (attendance center vs. administrative unit) is that the former are under the discretionary control of a local school board, whereas the latter are under constitutional and statutory control. Furthermore, criteria for local schools can be rather definite and objective in terms of measured miles or clocked travel time, numerical count of students, and so on. School system areas are not subject to definite and objective criteria. Also, patrons of a given school live in proximate neighborhoods, have many mutual acquaintances, and generally work together in church and civic affairs. These relationships do not continue in the same degree throughout a school system.

Patrons and pupils of one school may be wholly unknown to those of another school in the same system, yet the district may meet all criteria of a superior system as it operates under its representative governing board. Nevertheless, various groups who are unknown to each other frequently share some common interests and feelings which are important in school district organization. The survey staff observed an interesting demonstration of this fact during the 1965 session of the Georgia legislature. The newspapers reported an observation by one legislator that the time may be at hand when his County A and adjacent County B should be merged for their mutual advantage. Soon thereafter, a school official in County B wrote a "letter to the editor" in which he agreed that County B probably should be merged, but it would be with County C, for not till doomsday would B merge with A.

Objective criteria and outsiders cannot identify and assess these local feelings of affinity and antipathy. Consequently, when objective criteria still leave a free choice or option as to the direction a merger should follow, intimate knowledge of local relationships, attitudes, and preferences is needed. This consideration probably is the strongest justification for local planning of reorganization within the specifications of uniform criteria, such as the general plan followed in South Carolina in reducing more than 1,600 school systems to approximately 100 within one year.

Several weaknesses are apparent, however, in the South Carolina experiences: criteria were based on minimums; planning was limited to the individual county; the incentive was voluntary eligibility for capital outlay aid rather than a state demand for quality and efficiency; and vestiges of local whims and provincialism were saddled on the new systems. Finally, even though marked progress was made, the end results were less than optimum, and now have been solidified in new construction for another generation or two. Georgia is in a more advanced position and should set higher goals as criteria. Georgia also had a successful experience with the mandatory school legislation of 1945.

TESTING THE FINDINGS

A total of 169 school centers in 18 counties comprising the 9 study areas was visited to assess the feasibility of reorganizing school administrative units and attendance areas. These visits were not on the order of school building surveys but were close "operational" examinations. One member of the team had retired as chief of the school plant section of the USOE. and the other was the retired director of school plant services in Georgia. They were able to combine judgments which represent a high level of professional competence.

In these visits, the staff members also utilized the most recent school plant surveys and the school bus route maps currently filed in the state offices, which noted the location, type, and size of each school center. Their primary concern, therefore, was focused upon local school *centers*, expanding, where appropriate, to consider the district governmental plan indicated. The survey director later followed these visits with a tour through the same 18 counties, with major concern for the administration and operation of school *systems* in these localities. This section, therefore, presents a composite judgment concerning the application of *minimum* criteria for schools and school districts.

Under each of the study areas a proposal is made relative to possible reorganization of the administrative unit or units. This is followed by a listing of, and comments relative to, each school in the study area. The following symbols are used after the name of each school:

Code. Grades taught/number of teachers/and plant rating. For example, 1-7/15A following the name of a school means that the school houses grades 1-7; that it has 15 teachers, including the principal; and that the plant is satisfactory for continued service and suitable for enlargement *if needed.* A "B" rating is the same as "A," except that the plant should *not* be enlarged. A "C" rating means that the plant is only fair, and that, eventually, the pupils should be rehoused here or elsewhere. A "D" rating means that the building should be discontinued as soon as possible and the pupils rehoused on this site or elsewhere. Two or more letters indicate building units of different ratings on the same campus. A *plant* may be rated low because of size and location, although the *building* as such may deserve a higher rating.

Grade grouping. In general, the 7-5 type of grade grouping pattern will be recommended for these study areas. This is established by law and seems to be the way ADA records are kept, although the grades are often housed on the 8-4 pattern in the rural schools. The eighth grade pupils have reached a stage in their educational experience where they should have more specialized programs than can be provided economically in small elementary school centers. Therefore, it has been assumed that Grade 8 should be housed with the high school, or with a middle school unit, such as the 7-9 junior high school found in some urban centers.

School size. Unless transportation distances and conditions are unreasonable, the minimum size elementary school should have at least one teacher per grade. Two or three teachers per grade are preferable, with a maximum of four teachers per grade. In order to provide a broad variety of program offerings, school centers housing grades 8-12 should enroll at least 100 pupils per grade, especially in each of the three last grades. This has been tested as a policy, although exceptions may have to be made in rare cases because of extreme distances and road conditions.

Crossing county lines. As indicated earlier, county lines are not always the logical boundaries for the most efficient and convenient attendance areas. Georgia school officials are to be commended for working out pupil exchange and contract agreements in some cases, but this practice between counties could be extended to many more cases. This report proposes some mergers of small county school systems. Even after such mergers have been effected, there will still be many cases where pupils living on the fringe of the larger administrative units can be transported to and educated in neighboring school systems. In a few cases, this may even be extended across state lines. Obviously, wherever new lines are drawn, there will always be borderline cases.

Roads. Georgia has an excellent system of highways and paved connecting roads. This road system, combined with a good transportation system, makes it possible for nearly every child to be brought to a school of sufficient size to provide an efficient and effective educational program.

CASE STUDIES

The following nine localities were agreed upon for application of tentative criteria:

1. Bartow County and Cartersville (city)
2. Floyd County and Rome (city)
3. Troup County, and LaGrange, Hogansville, and West Point (cities)
4. Chattahoochee, Marion, Stewart, and Webster counties
5. Sumter and Schley counties and Americus (city)
6. Quitman, Randolph, Clay, and Calhoun counties
7. Laurens County and Dublin (city), merged
8. Jefferson County
9. Taliaferro, Warren, Glascock, and Hancock counties

Bartow County and Cartersville (city)

These two school systems should be merged as part of a single school administrative unit. This merger should contribute to more efficient and effective administration and operation of educational programs for all children and youth of this area.

Cartersville High School, 9-12/30B. Transfer Grade 9 to a new junior high school.

Cartersville Junior High School, 7-8/17D, and *Cartersville Elementary School,* 4-6/17A share the same poorly-developed site. Acquire a 25-acre site near the senior high school; erect a junior high school plant thereon for grades 7-9; remove the present obsolete junior high school structures; supplement the satisfactory elementary school facilities on the present joint site with suitable facilities for a really good elementary school plant for grades 1-6.

Cartersville Primary School, 1-3/19B. Continue as is or expand to include grades 1-6.

Adairsville School, 1-12/25BD. Transfer grades 8-12 to enlarged Cass High School.

Cass High School, 9-12/30AC, and *Cass Elementary School,* 1-8/25CD. These two schools share a good 26-acre site. Additional modern facilities are needed for grades 1-7, and the high school portion of the plant should be enlarged to 1,000 pupil capacity for grades 8-12. Eventually, all the buildings should be connected by covered walkways.

Cloverleaf Elementary School, 1-8/18A. Transfer Grade 8 to a new Cartersville Junior High School.

Emerson Elementary School, 1-8/8C. Discontinue and send pupils (including grades 9-12 from this area) to enlarged facilities in Cartersville.

Kingston School, 1-8/8A. Transfer Grade 8 to Cass High School.

Taylorsville School, 1-12/18BC. Transfer grades 8-12 to enlarged facilities in Cartersville.

Pine Log, 1-8/8C and *White,* 1-8/6C. Both of these schools should be discontinued and the pupils accommodated at Cartersville, Adairsville, and Cass.

Summer Hill High and Elementary School, 1-12/30B. Continue for grades 1-12.

Bartow Elementary School, 1-8/18A. Transfer Grade 8 to Summer Hill.

Floyd County and Rome (city)

Floyd County and Rome City school systems could reasonably be merged as a single school administrative unit. The following proposals regarding school centers are based on a single unified system.

The grade grouping pattern proposed for the unified system is elementary schools of grades 1-7 around the fringe of the county, and the 6-3-3 pattern for schools in and near the city area, with adjustments to fit local conditions.

East Rome Junior High School, 7-8/21B. Grade 9, now housed at East Rome High School, should be housed here, but the plant is too small and not suitable for enlarging.

East Rome High School, 9-12/36B. Needs an addition if Grade 9 is to be kept here.

West Rome High School, 7-12/35A. Continue for grades 10-12 *only* for both city and county pupils from the west side. Transfer grades 7-9 to a *new* west-side junior high school.

West End, 1-6/10A. Continue for grades 1-6.

Central Primary School, 1-6/11B. Continue for grades 1-6.

North Rome, 1-6/9B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Northside, 1-6/6A. Continue for grades 1-6.

Fourth Ward, 1-7/10D. Rehouse elsewhere.

Elm Street, 1-6/18C. Replace on new site.

South Rome, 1-6/7B. Continue for grades 1-6.

East Main, 1-5/4C. Close or use for grades 1-3 with 3 teachers.

Eighth Ward, 1-6/10B. Continue for grades 1-6.

East Rome, 1-6/12B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Alto Park, 1-8/22B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Armuchee, 1-12/24B. Continue for grades 1-7. Transfer grades 8-12 to West Rome High School and to *new* high schools.

Cave Spring, 1-12/18AC. Continue for grades 1-7 *only.*

Celanese, 1-8/10B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Coosa, 1-12/34B. Continue for grades 1-7 *only.*

Garden Lakes, 1-8/25B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Glenwood, 1-8/15B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Johnson, 1-12/24B. Continue for grades 1-7 *only.*

McHenry, 1-8/14AC. Continue for grades 1-6.

Midway, 1-8/18B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Model, 1-12/41B. Continue for grades 1-7 *only.*

Krannart, 1-3/8A. Continue for grades 1-3.

Pepperell Elementary School, 1-5/21B and *Pepperell High School,* 6-12/41B. Both Pepperell schools should be relieved by a *new* "middle school" on a suitable site as near these adjacent schools as possible.

New West Side Junior High School, (7-9). A new junior high school should be erected to house pupils from the west side.

New High School (8-12). A new high school should be erected east and north of Rome to rehouse grades 8-12 from Model and Johnson.

Mary Banks, 1-6/11B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Anna Davis, 1-7/19B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Graham Street, 1-6/6B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Main Elementary, 1-6/10B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Reservoir Street, 1-6/6B. Continue for grades 1-6.

E. S. Brown, 1-7/5B. Continue for grades 1-7.

Main High, 7-12/35B. This overcrowded building is located on a small site, and plans are under way to add 11 more classrooms. A better solution would have been the erection of a new "middle school" on a suitable nearby site to house grades 7-8 from Main High School and some Grade 6 sections to relieve overloaded elementary feeder schools.

Troup County, LaGrange (city), Hogansville (city), and West Point (city)

Troup County schools and LaGrange, Hogansville, and West Point city schools could reasonably be administered as a single school district. The following proposals regarding specific school centers are based on such a merger:

Cannon Street, 1-6/9B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Dawson Street, 1-6/13C. Continue for grades 1-6 for the present.

Dunson, 1-6/11A. Continue for grades 1-6.

Harwell Ave., 1-6/16. Burned, being replaced.

Southwest LaGrange, 1-6/19B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Unity, 1-6/11B. Continue for grades 1-6.

Hill Street Junior High School, 7-8/13D. Replace farther east for grades 7-9 from both county and city.

West Side Junior High School, 7-8/14A. Enlarge to serve the west side for grades 7-9.

LaGrange High School, 9-12/37B. Transfer Grade 9 to the junior high schools.

Hogansville High School, 6-12/20B. Transfer grades 8-12 to LaGrange, remove obsolete structures, and continue for upper elementary grades.

Hogansville Elementary School, 1-5/13A. Continue for lower elementary grades.

West Point Elementary School, 1-7/12C. Abandon.

West Point High School, 8-12/12B. Convert for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to LaGrange and/or contract with Lanett, Alabama. New legislation is indicated.

Center, 1-7/11A. Continue for grades 1-7.

Gray Hill, 1-7/9A. Continue for grades 1-7.

Hillcrest, 1-7/10A. Continue for grades 1-7.

Mountville, 1-7/8A. Continue for grades 1-7.

Rosemont, 1-7/12A. Continue for grades 1-7.

Tatum, 1-7/7A. Continue for grades 1-7.

Troup High School, 8-12/43A. Continue for grades 10-12. Erect a *new* junior high school for grades 7-9. These two secondary schools will then accommodate high school pupils from Hogansville and West Point, as well as some pupils from the southern portion of the city area.

East Depot Street, 1-7/18B and *East Depot Street,* 8-12/27B. These schools are on the same campus; and, if there is no substantial increase, should be continued for grades 1-12. If a material enrollment increase should occur, a *new* junior high for grades 7-9 would be justified.

Jones Street, 1-7/4C. Discontinue and transfer students to Kight.

Kelley, 1-7/21B. Continue for grades 1-7.

Thomaston, 1-7/11B. Continue for grades 1-7.

West End (Hogansville), 1-12/21BD. Continue for 1-7 only, and transfer high school pupils to a high school in or near LaGrange.

Tenth Street (West Point), 1-7/16D. Abandon.

Harrison (West Point), 8-12/11A. Enlarge and convert to 1-7 school. Transfer high school pupils to a high school in or near LaGrange.

Ethel Kight, 1-12/37A. Continue for grades 1-12.

Mt. Pleasant, 1-8/20A. Continue for grades 1-7. Transfer Grade 8 pupils to the East Depot Street School in LaGrange.

Chattahoochee, Marion, Stewart, and Webster Counties

Chattahoochee, Marion, Stewart, and Webster county school systems could reasonably be operated as part of a single school administrative unit, with high school centers placed in Richland, Buena Vista, and Lumpkin. Based on the four-months' ADA, there would be about 600 pupils in the 5-year high school near Richland and about 475 pupils in each of the 5-year high schools at Buena Vista and Lumpkin.

Cusseta High School, 1-12/D. Abandon. Build a new plant for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to a new high school near Richland.

Richland, 1-8/10C. Continue for grades 1-7 only, and transfer Grade 8 to the new high school near Richland.

Stewart County High School, 1-5 and 9-12/14BC. Continue for grades 1-7 only, and transfer grades 8-12 to a new high school near Richland.

Marion County School, 1-12/26B. Continue for grades 1-7 only, and transfer grades 8-12 to a new high school near Richland.

Webster County School, 1-12/14B. Continue for grades 1-7 *only,* and transfer grades 8-12 to a new high school near Richland.

Cusseta Industrial School, 1-12/10B. Continue for grades 1-7 *only,* and transfer grades 8-12 to Buena Vista High School.

Omaha School, 1-7/7A. Continue for grades 1-7.

Lumpkin High and Industrial School, 1-5 and 9-12/31B. Continue as consolidated high school for grades 8-12, and erect a new elementary school on a new site.

Richland Negro, 1-8/19A. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer Grade 8 to Lumpkin High and Industrial School.

Buena Vista, 1-12/31B. Continue as a consolidated high school for grades 8-12, and erect a new elementary school.

Ida Lowery, 1-12/20A. Continue for grades 1-7 *only,* and transfer grades 8-12 to Buena Vista and to Lumpkin High and Industrial School.

Americus City, and Sumter and Schley Counties

Americus City, and Sumter and Schley county school systems could reasonably be merged into a single school administrative unit with two 5-year high schools both in Americus. Several small elementary schools in this area, some with only 18 or 20 pupils in each grade, cannot justify a teacher per grade.

Americus High School, 9-12/24AD. Because of the loss of one building by fire, this school is now using some makeshift facilities. The plant should be enlarged to accommodate 1,200 pupils in grades 8-12 from this combined administrative unit.

Furlow, 1-5/13C. Continue for grades 1-7 for the present; eventually, it should be replaced with modern facilities.

Cherokee, 1-5/12A. Enlarge to an 18- or 21-teacher school for grades 1-7.

Reese Park, 6-7/12D. Abandon and rehouse pupils elsewhere.

New Era, 1-7/7C. Abandon and house pupils in Americus.

Plains, 1-12/17C. Discontinue and house pupils in Americus.

Thalean, 1-7/7BD. Thalean is now using five new rooms and two makeshift rooms; 100 per cent of the pupils are transported. This school is too small to continue as a permanent center. The pupils should be transferred to Americus.

Union (Leslie), 1-12/16BC. Discontinue and house pupils in Americus.

Anthony, Grade 8 only/5D. Abandon, and rehouse in Americus area.

Schley, 1-12/15AD. Continue elementary plant for grades 1-7. Abandon the old high school plant, and transfer grades 8-12 to Americus.

East View, 1-5/30B. Continue for grades 1-7.

Staley, 6-9/23BC. Continue for grades 1-7.

Northeast, 1-8/15B. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer Grade 8 to Americus.

Southeast, 1-8/15B. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer Grade 8 to Americus.

Westside, 1-8/18B. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer Grade 8 to Americus.

Sumter High School for Negroes, 10-12/14A. Expand to a capacity of 900 pupils for grades 8-12 from the merged administrative unit.

John H. Lewis, 1-12/23A. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to Americus. In addition to the proposed enlargement of the new Cherokee School, two additional elementary schools will be needed in the Americus area when the present obsolete facilities are abandoned.

Quitman, Randolph, Clay, and Calhoun Counties

Quitman, Randolph, Clay, and Calhoun county school systems could reasonably be merged into one segment of a single school administrative unit.

Georgetown, 1-12/12CD. Abandon and transfer all grades to Randolph County High School and/or contract with Eufaula, Alabama, under new legislative authority.

Randolph County High School and Cuthbert Elementary School, 1-12/32A. Enlarge building and site for grades 8-12 for a consolidated high school for the four-county administrative unit, and erect a new plant for grades 1-7 for Randolph County.

Shellman, 1-7/6C. Abandon and transfer students to Randolph County High School.

Clay County Elementary and High School, 1-12/18B. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to Randolph County High School.

Arlington, 1-8/8C. Eventually abandon. Transfer grades 1-7 to Edison, and Grade 8 to Randolph County High School.

Calhoun County High School (Edison), 1-5 and 9-12/16A. This is a new school on a 46-acre site. This plant should be converted to a consolidated elementary school for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to Randolph County High School.

Leary Elementary, 1-5/5BC. Eventually abandon and transfer pupils to the new Edison plant.

Morgan Junior High, 6-8/5D. Abandon and transfer grades 6-7 to Edison, and Grade 8 to Randolph County High School.

Kaigler, 1-12/18A. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to Henderson High School in Cuthbert.

Coleman, 1-6/2D. Abandon and transfer pupils to Henderson Elementary and Primary School.

Henderson (Cuthbert), 1-12/37A. Operate as one of two additional consolidated high schools for grades 8-12 in the four-county administrative unit, and use locally for the upper elementary grades. A new primary unit will also be needed for the Cuthbert area.

Shellman Vocational School, 1-12/19A. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to Henderson.

Bluffton, 1-8/5C. Eventually abandon and transfer all grades to Henderson Elementary and High School.

Speight (Ft Gaines), 1-12/23A. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to Henderson in Cuthbert.

Arlington Negro, 1-8/10A. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to H. T. Singleton School in Morgan.

Edison Negro, 1-8/11A. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer Grade 8 to H. T. Singleton School in Morgan.

Anderson (Leary), 1-8/10A. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer Grade 8 to H. T. Singleton School in Morgan.

H. T. Singleton (Morgan) 1-12/19A. Enlarge and continue for grades 1-7 locally, and as one of the consolidated high schools for grades 8-12 in the four-county administrative unit.

Dublin (city) and Laurens County

The city and county are to be commended for merging the two systems as a single school administrative unit.

New Senior High School. A new 900-capacity senior high school should be erected on a 30-acre site adjacent to the present stadium west of town. This new plant should house pupils in grades 10-12 from both the city and the county.

Dublin High and Elementary School, 1-12/53B. This site is too small for the present ADA of more than 1,200 pupils in grades 1-12, but it would be almost impossible to correct this error in past planning. This plant should be used for a city-county junior high school for grades 7-9 from the urban area and grades 8-9 from the rural areas.

Johnson Street, 1-6/7C. Convert this plant to administrative offices for the merged school system.

Moore Street, 1-6/13A. Enlarge and continue for grades 1-6.

Saxon Heights, 1-6/13BC. Enlarge site, and continue for grades 1-6.

Hillcrest, 1-6/7A. Enlarge and continue for grades 1-6.

Cadwell, 1-7/5BD. Abandon and transfer pupils to the present county high school plant near the intersection of State roads 31 and 117.

Cedar Grove, 1-7/5BD. Abandon and transfer pupils to the present county high school plant.

Dexter, 1-12/18BD. Abandon. Transfer grades 8-12 to *new* senior and present junior high schools in Dublin, and grades 1-7 to the present county high school and to Dudley School.

Montrose, 1-3/3D. Abandon and transfer pupils to Dudley.

Dudley, 4-12/15AD. Continue for 1-7 *only*.

Rentz, 1-7/8C. Eventually abandon and transfer pupils to the present county high school plant.

Laurens High School, 8-12/13A. Convert to an elementary school for grades 1-7, and transfer pupils in grades 8-12 to the new junior and senior high school in Dublin.

East Laurens Elementary School, (Old Wilkes Site). Grades 2-4 are housed here temporarily as a branch of East Laurens School. It should be abandoned and the pupils housed in the main East Laurens plant when the East Laurens High School is housed elsewhere.

East Laurens Main Plant, grade one plus 5-12/39B, including teachers in the branch. Continue for grades 1-7 *only*, and transfer grades 8-12 to the new junior and senior high schools in Dublin.

The county has done well to consolidate all of the rural Negro schools into three 1-12 well-housed centers. However, the high school ADA in each of these three centers is too small to justify a good broad educational program. Therefore, a 30-acre site should be acquired adjacent to the Oconee High School, and a 500-capacity plant should be erected thereon to house pupils in grades 10-12. Urban grades 7-9 and rural grades 8-9 should be housed in the present Oconee High and Susie Dasher plants; *Mary Fleming* (1-12/22B), *Millville* (1-12/35B), and *B. D. Perry* (1-12/23B) should be continued for grades 1-7 *only*.

Oconee High and Susie Dasher, 3-12/41B. Continue for grades 6-9 *only*.

Washington Street, 1-3/13ACD. Enlarge site, add about 12 classrooms, and operate for grades 1-5.

Jefferson County

This is a county school administrative unit with no independent school systems, but a great deal of internal reorganization of attendance centers is needed. A 30-acre site should be acquired just north of Louisville, and a 700-capacity high school plant should be erected thereon for Jefferson County pupils in grades 8-12.

Avery, 1-8/3D. Abandon. Transfer Grade 8 to the new county high school, and grades 1-7 to Wrens.

Louisville Academy, 1-12/26AD. Transfer grades 8-12 to the new county high school; abandon the old facilities now used for the elementary school (with the possible exceptions of the gymnasium and shop); enlarge site and double the facilities now used for high school and convert to elementary use for grades 1-7.

Matthews, 1-7/3D. Abandon and transfer pupils to Wrens.

Stapleton, 1-8/4BD. Abandon. Transfer Grade 8 to the new county high school, and grades 1-7 to Wrens.

Wadley, 1-12/18BD. Take down the old two-story structure, transfer grades 8-12 to the new county high school, and continue this school for grades 1-7.

Wrens, 1-12/24AD. Transfer grades 8-12 to the new county high school, convert present high school to 1-7 and enlarge to 450-capacity. Abandon old campus.

Carver, 1-8/16B. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to Louisville.

Price Elementary, 1-5/15D. Abandon, and erect a new 21-teacher plant near the present Jefferson County Negro High School for grades 1-7. (The county is now planning an 11-room addition to the high school to replace Price School, but about 21 rooms will be needed to accommodate pupils from the old Price School, and to relieve the high school by removing grades 6-7.

Jefferson County Negro High School, 6-12/28A. Continue for grades 8-12, transfer grades 6-7 to the new elementary school, and enlarge by four rooms to house pupils in Grade 8 being transferred here from rural schools.

B. T. Washington, 1-8/11B. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer Grade 8 to the Jefferson County High School.

Tenders Grove, 1-8/8A. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer Grade 8 to Louisville.

Wrens Negro, 1-8/18A. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer Grade 8 to Louisville.

Taliaferro, Warren, Glascock, and Hancock Counties

Taliaferro, Warren, Glascock, and Hancock county school systems could reasonably be merged into a single school administrative unit. The survey staff considered other possible combinations, but this merger seems to be the best solution for meeting school-size criteria within the limits of these four counties as a case study.

Alexander Stephens Institute, 1-12/11B. Transfer grades 8-12 to Warrenton, and continue Stephens for grades 1-7 for the present. There is not sufficient ADA in grades 1-7 to qualify for a teacher per grade. Eventually, it may have to be discontinued and the pupils absorbed in the adjacent counties.

Warren County School, 1-12/28A. Erect a new 14-teacher school for grades 1-7; remodel and add a sufficient number of classrooms to the present plant to provide a 600-capacity comprehensive secondary school plant for pupils in grades 8-12 in this four-county merger.

Glascock County, 1-12/15B. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to Warrenton.

Sparta, 1-12/27BCD. This is a "hodgepodge" of facilities, much of which should be abandoned. With some extensive renovation, there would be adequate facilities for the 309 ADA pupils in grades 1-7. The 8-12 ADA of 209 pupils should be rehoused regardless of merger, even if Hancock County should remain an independent school system. Sparta's 8-12 pupils should be transferred to the Warrenton High School. It may be advisable to contract for sending some of these pupils from the southern end of Hancock County to Baldwin County (Milledgeville.)

Murden, 1-12/20BC. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to Warrenton.

Norwood, 1-7/12B. Continue for grades 1-7.

Warrenton Negro, 1-12/32A. Continue for grades 6-12, and build a new 12-teacher plant for grades 1-5.

Glascock County Negro, 1-12/8B. Continue for grades 1-7, and transfer grades 8-12 to Warrenton.

Southwest, 1-7/16A. Continue for grades 1-7. Two additional classrooms may be added.

Central Negro High and Elementary, 1-12/69B. This is a good plant but overcrowded. ADA in grades 1-7 is 1,161, and ADA in grades 8-12 is 617. The plant is now short by about 15 classrooms. This school should be relieved by erecting a new 15-teacher school just southeast of Sparta for pupils in grades 1-7.

FINANCING CAPITAL OUTLAY

When permanent school centers are established which are designed to give children a quality education in centers large enough to meet the criterion of at least 100 pupils per grade in grades 8-12, a determination should be made as to the facilities needed for a complete school. After the local school systems have contributed sufficient funds to meet a reasonable percentage of the cost based on local ability, the State Board of Education should consider supplementing the local funds by an amount necessary to provide all the facilities needed for a complete school program.

CHAPTER 5

FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS IN REORGANIZATION OF LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

Economies in operational cost may be expected in any proposed consolidation of governmental services. In the case of education, these economies should result from (1) better services for the dollars now being spent for education in the component school systems, and (2) more quality per dollar invested in increased expenditures for education. The cost economy to be effected by a merger of two or more school systems lies in the opportunities for more efficient operation. The administrative, supervisory, and other special service personnel presently employed in the component school systems can be utilized more effectively in the reorganized unit. As indicated earlier in this report, many Georgia school systems lack adequate administrative, supervisory, and other special service staff. However, there are definite limitations on the justification for larger central staffs under the present school system structure. Merging two or more school systems would in many cases justify a more effective administrative organization.

Further justification in favor of reorganization can be found in observable plant factors. The design of more adequate space, the greater convenience to pupils and parents, the avoidance of unnecessary duplication of facilities, and the more efficient utilization of plant capacity by increased flexibility in pupil attendance areas should provide greater returns for the dollars spent. This, as a measure of economy, is a distinct advantage accruing from consolidating units before additional state or local capital outlay funds are allocated.

Probably the greatest possibility for more efficient operation in many Georgia school systems lies in the more efficient utilization of the teaching staff that would result from the larger schools mandated in the proposed standards for acceptably reorganized school systems. The greatest opportunities lie in the consolidation of the small high schools.

A study made by Morris in 1964, in cooperation with the Peabody College Center for Southern Education Studies, analyzed the relationship between high school size, per pupil expenditures for instructional staff salaries, and selected educational factors. A total of 3,727 high schools in nine southern states, including 412 Georgia high schools, were included in the study. The positive correlation between the size of the high school and efficient expenditures for staff salaries was shown by assessing the following changes in certain educational factors as high school enrollments increased and per pupil expenditures were held constant:

1. The percentage of teachers holding the master's degree increased as school size increased.
2. The percentage of pupils in subjects taught by teachers not having certificate endorsement for that subject decreased as school size increased.
3. The average number of courses offered increased as school size increased.
4. The average number of subject areas offered increased as school size increased.

When all factors were considered, the study concluded that high schools enrolling fewer than 500 pupils were paying a premium price for an inferior school program. These smaller high schools were generally characterized by meager curriculum offerings, poorly prepared teachers, and many teachers teaching out of their fields of specialization.*

While savings can be effected by more efficient utilization of staff, school plant facilities, transportation facilities, and other facilities, this should not be interpreted to mean that reorganization will permit decreased expenditures for education. Savings may be more than offset by the immediate necessity for equalizing all services up to the highest standard found in any component school system and by the long-range adoption of even higher standards of educational service.

Differences in Educational Opportunity

That unequal educational opportunities exist among local administrative units within the State is a rather generally accepted fact among well-informed Georgia citizens. While some of these differences may be attributed to more efficient school district and school attendance area organization, the survey staff concludes that in many cases the differences relate directly to the amount of financial support provided by the several administrative units. Since a minimum uniform level of educational services among school systems in the State is mandated in the state-local minimum foundation program, program differences attributable to financial support must result primarily from differences in the extent to which local units provide funds to supplement the minimum program.

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*Harold J. Morris, "Relationship of School Size to Per Pupil Expenditure in Secondary Schools of Nine Southern States" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, 1964).

The amount expended per pupil in average daily attendance in the county school systems in 1963-64 to supplement the minimum foundation program ranged from no expenditure to $207.87. The supplements per pupil in independent school systems ranged from $3.46 per pupil to $184.61 per pupil. The distribution of county and independent school systems by the amount expended per pupil in 1963-64 to supplement the minimum foundation school program is shown in Table 18.

Table 19 shows the funds available per pupil in 1963-64 to supplement the minimum foundation program in the school systems included in eight of the nine case studies. The ninth case, Jefferson County, is omitted because it is already a county unit with no internal district reorganization to be made. Rabun and Habersham counties and Tallulah Falls city are substituted for this analysis. A comparison is made between the per pupil supplements in the selected systems and the per pupil supplements which would have been available had the selected systems been consolidated units with the same total local revenue available. In seven of the cases it can be assumed that present services could have been equalized with the present total local revenue support and the possible savings effected. In the case of Troup County and its independent systems, the combined local revenue applied to the total pupil load would have resulted in a decrease of approximately $30 per pupil available to the LaGrange school system. A loss of $40 per pupil in Cartersville would have resulted from a consolidation of that city's system with Bartow County. Thus, it appears that certain consolidations would require additional total local revenue to equalize services among the component school systems.

School System Reorganization and Equalized Services

The principle of equalization—taking the wealth where it is found to educate children where they reside—is a well established principle of the Georgia state minimum foundation school program. This principle can be further implemented at the local school system level, which can become a second level

TABLE 18

DISTRIBUTION OF GEORGIA COUNTY AND INDEPENDENT SCHOOL SYSTEMS BY AMOUNT PER PUPIL EXPENDED FROM LOCAL FUNDS TO SUPPLEMENT MINIMUM FOUNDATION PROGRAM, 1963-64

	County School Systems		*Independent School Systems*		*All School Systems*	
Per Pupil Supplement	*Number*	*Per Cent*	*Number*	*Per Cent*	*Number*	*Per Cent*
Less than $10.00	30	18.9	4	10.8	34	17.4
$10.00-$19.99	59	37.2			59	30.1
$20.00-$29.99	37	23.3	5	13.5	42	21.4
$30.00-$39.99	15	9.4	6	16.3	21	10.7
$40.00-$49.99	6	3.8	5	13.5	11	5.6
$50.00-$59.99	5	3.1	4	10.8	9	4.6
$60.00-$69.99	1	0.6	2	5.4	3	1.5
$70.00-$79.99	3	1.9	2	5.4	5	2.6
$80.00-$89.99	1	0.6	5	13.5	6	3.1
$90.00-$99.99			1	2.7	1	0.5
$120.00-$129.99	1	0.6	1	2.7	2	1.0
$150.00-$159.99			1	2.7	1	0.5
$180.00-$189.00			1	2.7	1	0.5
$200.00-$209.99	1	0.6			1	0.5
Total	159	100.0	37	100.0	196	100.0

TABLE 19

COMPARISON OF FUNDS AVAILABLE PER PUPIL TO SUPPLEMENT MINIMUM FOUNDATION PROGRAM IN SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN 1963-64 WITH PER PUPIL SUPPLEMENT IF SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS HAD BEEN A CONSOLIDATED SYSTEM PROVIDING SAME LOCAL REVENUE AS COMPONENT SYSTEMS

School System	*Local Revenue Receipts for Maintenance and Operation*	*Minimum Foundation Program Requirement*	*Supplemental Funds Available*	*Average Daily Attendance*	*Supplement Per Pupil*
Chattahoochee County	$ 16,568	$ 15,558	$ 980	473	$ 2.07
Marion County	54,596	24,182	30,414	1,290	23.58
Stewart County	76,913	37,398	39,515	1,882	21.00
Webster County	18,780	13,065	5,715	769	7.43
Consolidated System	**166,857**	**90,233**	**76,624**	**4,414**	**17.36**
Calhoun County	74,574	36,821	37,753	1,936	19.50
Clay County	27,326	19,518	7,808	1,014	7.70
Quitman County	16,407	10,074	6,333	606	10.45
Randolph County	64,558	53,426	11,132	2,302	4.84
Consolidated System	**182,865**	**119,839**	**63,026**	**5,858**	**10.76**
Bartow County	165,704	84,736	80,968	4,181	19.37
Cartersville	300,941	87,289	213,652	2,486	85.94
Consolidated System	**466,645**	**172,025**	**294,620**	**6,667**	**44.19**
Troup County	138,462	51,318	87,144	3,783	23.04
Hogansville	64,723	25,327	39,396	1,271	31.00
LaGrange	661,392	208,245	453,047	5,384	84.15
West Point	117,155	49,813	67,342	1,189	56.64

TABLE 19 (Continued)

School System	*Local Revenue Receipts for Maintenance and Operation*	*Minimum Foundation Program Requirement*	*Supplemental Funds Available*	*Average Daily Attendance*	*Supplement Per Pupil*
Consolidated System	**$981,732**	**$334,803**	**$646,929**	**$11,627**	**$55.64**
Sumter County	118,524	68,155	50,369	2,601	19.37
Americus	190,532	74,290	116,242	2,926	39.73
Schley County	40,328	16,462	23,866	834	28.62
Consolidated System	**349,384**	**158,907**	**190,477**	**6,361**	**29.94**
Laurens County	161,497	62,917	98,580	4,344	22.69
Dublin	130,387	99,227	31,160	3,598	8.66
Consolidated System	**291,884**	**162,144**	**129,740**	**7,942**	**16.34**
Floyd County	924,563	283,221	641,342	7,882	81.37
Rome	839,602	277,287	562,315	6,944	80.98
Consolidated System	**1,764,165**	**560,508**	**1,203,657**	**14,826**	**81.19**
Habersham County	125,485	81,263	44,222	4,170	10.60
Rabun County	103,479	72,683	30,796	1,992	15.46
Tallulah Falls	52,195	42,504	9,691	210	46.15
Consolidated System	**281,159**	**196,450**	**84,709**	**6,372**	**13.29**
Glascock County	18,773	11,780	6,993	541	12.93
Hancock County	71,250	35,664	35,586	2,637	13.49
Taliaferro County	29,127	16,020	13,107	683	19.19
Warren County	60,065	35,118	24,947	1,582	15.77
Consolidated System	**179,215**	**98,582**	**80,633**	**5,443**	**14.81**

of equalization. One can argue, therefore, that the State would be justified in requiring the consolidation of two school systems with great disparity in wealth per pupil and in using the total financial resources of the consolidated system to "level upward" the quality of the educational program.

Local opposition to school system reorganization is likely to be quite strong in a majority of the Georgia school systems. Resistance will be strongest in those school systems which feel that their educational programs are superior to the other component system or systems being considered for reorganization with them. Opposition to reorganization can be lessened if the upward equalization of services in the reorganized systems can be accomplished with a uniform financial effort no greater than the effort being made by the component system already providing the greatest financial support per pupil. Stated another way, reorganization will be facilitated if the school systems that are required to make a greater local financial effort because of reorganization can be assured of better educational services for their children and youth. The component school systems with the higher educational standards will want assurance that these standards can be maintained at their present financial effort and that any increased financial effort on their part will result in increased quality of their own educational service. Variations in financial ability and effort among the local school systems should not be ignored, therefore, in proposing school system reorganization.

Variations in financial ability. The determination of the theoretical ability of local school administrative units to pay taxes to support schools and other public services is a very complex problem. Various indices can be used to show the relative wealth of local school administrative units. Since the major source of local revenue to support public schools in Georgia is the property tax, a dollar measure of local ability to support public education should be related to the property tax base. This was recognized by the 1964 Georgia State General Assembly in its Minimum Foundation Program of Education Act. The Act provides that beginning July 1, 1965, a county's share of the minimum foundation program will be determined by the percentage that the equalized adjusted school property tax digest of the county is of the total equalized school property tax digest of the State. The estimated true value of taxable property is considered by the survey staff as a valid gross measure of wealth and taxpaying ability. To be meaningful, the gross measure must be equated to some kind of unit measure of educational service load, such as wealth per pupil.

Great extremes can be found in the total taxable wealth and in the relation of this wealth to the number of children to be educated among Georgia counties and independent school systems. The estimated true value of property per pupil in average daily attendance in the county school systems ranges from $10,446 to $55,356. The range in independent school systems is from $7,647 per pupil to $48,731 per pupil. It should be noted, however, that approximately 50 per cent of the county and independent school systems fall within the reasonably narrow range of $15,000 to $20,000 property value per pupil. Thus, many opportunities exist for unifying school districts of reasonably comparable financial ability. The distribution of Georgia school systems on the basis of taxpaying ability to support public education is shown in Table 20.

TABLE 20

DISTRIBUTION OF GEORGIA SCHOOL SYSTEMS BY ESTIMATED TAXABLE PROPERTY VALUE PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE

Taxable Property Value Per Pupil	*County School Systems*		*Independent School Systems*	
	Number	*Per Cent*	*Number*	*Per Cent*
Less than $10,000			3	8.1
$10,000-$10,999	2	1.3	1	2.7
11,000- 11,999	3	1.9	1	2.7
12,000- 12,999	2	1.3	4	10.8
13,000- 13,999	15	9.4		
14,000- 14,999	14	8.8		
15,000- 15,999	16	10.1	1	2.7
16,000- 16,999	17	10.7	2	5.4
17,000- 17,999	15	9.4	5	13.6
18,000- 18,999	20	12.7	3	8.1
19,000- 19,999	14	8.8	2	5.4
20,000- 20,999	8	5.0	1	2.7
21,000- 21,999	2	1.3	3	8.1
22,000- 22,999	5	3.1	3	8.1
23,000- 23,999	3	1.9	2	5.4
24,000- 24,999	5	3.1		
25,000- 25,999	1	0.6	1	2.7
26,000- 26,999	5	3.1		
27,000- 27,999			1	2.7
28,000- 28,999	4	2.5		
29,000- 29,999	5	3.1		
30,000- 39,999	2	1.3	2	5.4
40,000 or more	1	0.6	2	5.4
Total	159	100.0	37	100.0

Variations in financial effort. There are several possible measures of local effort to support education. The expenditures for education from local funds may constitute a very rough indication of effort. They do not actually measure it, however, because a local unit with high ability may, with very little effort, be able to expend a larger amount of funds than a less wealthy local unit could expend with a much higher effort. Expenditures, therefore, give some indication of the investment in education in a local administrative unit but not of the effort being made to support the schools.

Local tax rates are likewise often considered an indication of the effort made by a local school district. However, a relatively high rate in a district having a low ratio between assessed and actual valuation may constitute less effort than a much lower rate in a district with a relatively high assessment ratio. Nevertheless, as was indicated in the discussion on measuring local ability, a dollar measure of local effort to support public education should be related to the property tax base. A valid measure of local effort in support of education is the percentage of the true value of taxable property allocated annually to the local support of public schools.

Georgia school systems differ not only in their ability but also in their willingness to provide financial support for educational services. Using the ratio of revenues to the value of taxable property as a measure of effort, the local effort to support education ranges in county school systems from an annual expenditure of less than 0.1 per cent to more than 0.8 per cent of the taxable wealth. Thus, Fulton County's effort to support schools locally in 1963-64 was more than eight times the effort exerted by Atkinson County. In the independent school systems, the range in expenditures in 1963-64 was from 0.19 per cent to 0.93 per cent of the true property value. The distribution of Georgia counties and independent school systems by this measure of financial effort is shown in Table 21.

Despite the wide range in financial effort to support public education in Georgia, it should be noted that approximately 30 per cent of all school systems spend between 0.1 per cent and 0.2 per cent of their taxable wealth annually on education and another 37 per cent spend between 0.2 per cent and 0.3 per cent. Of the 95 school systems having a per pupil wealth of from $15,000 to $20,000, approximately 31 per cent spend between 0.1 per cent and 0.2 per cent of their taxable wealth annually on public schools and 43 per cent spend between 0.2 and 0.3 per cent. Thus, it appears that many opportunities exist

TABLE 21

DISTRIBUTION OF GEORGIA COUNTY AND INDEPENDENT SCHOOL SYSTEMS BY PER CENT OF TRUE VALUE OF TAXABLE PROPERTY ALLOCATED TO LOCAL MAINTENANCE AND OPERATION SCHOOL REVENUES, 1963-64

Per Cent Revenue Receipts are of Value of Taxable Property	*County School Systems*		*Independent School Systems*	
	Number	*Per Cent*	*Number*	*Per Cent*
Less than 0.10	1	0.6		
0.10—0.19	57	35.8	2	5.4
0.20—0.29	69	43.5	3	8.1
0.30—0.39	23	14.5	6	16.2
0.40—0.49	7	4.4	8	21.6
0.50—0.59	1	0.6	12	32.5
0.60—0.69			4	10.8
0.70—0.79			1	2.7
0.80—0.89	1	0.6		
0.90—0.99			1	2.7
Total	159	100.0	37	100.0

for combining two or more school systems that are reasonably comparable in financial ability and effort. This would lessen the problem of equalizing educational services in the consolidated units.

Table 22 summarizes the results of an analysis concerning the probability that the "leveling upward" process to the highest present standard in any reorganized school unit can be achieved by mandating a uniform tax effort which is no greater than that being exerted by the component unit which presently provides the largest per pupil supplement to the minimum foundation school program. Nine test cases are analyzed in Table 22. In five of the nine cases, the specified uniform effort would produce a per pupil supplement either approximately equal to or in excess of the highest per pupil supplement expended by a component school system. In two cases the difference would be so negligible as to have little effect on the operation of the program. Only in the test cases involving Floyd County and Rome Independent School System and Bartow County and Cartersville Independent School System as single units were the per pupil supplement amounts significantly lowered—approximately $23 and $15 per pupil, respectively. In the cases involving Floyd County and Rome Independent System and Sumter County, Schley County and Americus Independent System, the total amount of funds available under this method of equalization would actually be less than at present, due to sharp differences in per pupil property values in the

TABLE 22

COMPARISON OF FUNDS AVAILABLE PER PUPIL TO SUPPLEMENT THE MINIMUM FOUNDATION PROGRAM IN SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN 1963-64 WITH FUNDS WHICH WOULD HAVE BEEN AVAILABLE IF SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS HAD BEEN A CONSOLIDATED SYSTEM EXERTING THE SAME EFFORT AS THE COMPONENT SCHOOL SYSTEM PROVIDING THE LARGEST SUPPLEMENT PER PUPIL

School System	*Estimated True Value of Taxable Property*	*Local Effort Index*[1]	*Local Revenue Receipts for Maintenance and Operation*	*Minimum Foundation Program Requirement*	*Supplemental Funds Available*	*Average Daily Attendance*	*Supplement Per Pupil*
Chattahoochee Co.	$ 8,516,951	.00194	$ 16,568	$ 15,588	$ 980	473	$ 2.07
Marion County	19,148,812	.00285	54,596	24,182	30,414	1,290	23.58
Stewart County	31,724,823	.00242	76,913	37,398	39,515	1,882	21.00
Webster County	14,211,204	.00132	18,780	13,065	5,715	769	7.43
Consolidated System	**73,601,790**	**.00285**[2]	**209,765**	**90,233**	**119,532**	**4,414**	**27.08**
Calhoun County	31,753,525	.00234	74,574	36,821	37,752	1,936	219.50
Clay County	18,167,290	.00150	27,326	19,518	7,808	1,014	7.70
Quitman County	11,856,417	.00138	16,407	10,074	6,333	606	10.45
Randolph County	37,802,597	.00170	64,558	53,426	11,132	2,302	4.84
Consolidated System	**99,579,829**	**.00234**[2]	**233,017**	**119,839**	**113,178**	**5,858**	**19.32**
Bartow County	54,468,034	.00304	165,704	84,736	80,968	4,181	19.37
Cartersville	56,505,443	.00532	300,941	87,289	213,652	2,486	85.94
Consolidated System	**110,973,477**	**.00532**[2]	**590,379**	**172,025**	**418,354**	**6,667**	**62.75**
Troup County	50,223,290	.00275	138,462	51,318	87,144	3,783	23.04
Hogansville	12,075,412	.00535	64,723	25,327	39,396	1,271	31.00
LaGrange	95,763,840	.00690	661,392	208,345	453,047	5,384	84.15
West Point	23,636,938	.00495	117,155	49,813	67,342	1,189	56.64
Consolidated System	**181,699,480**	**.00690**[2]	**1,253,726**	**334,803**	**918,923**	**11,627**	**79.03**

TABLE 22 (Continued)

School System	*Estimated True Value of Taxable Property*	*Local Effort Index*[1]	*Local Revenue Receipts for Maintenance and Operation*	*Minimum Foundation Program Requirement*	*Supplemental Funds Available*	*Average Daily Attendance*	*Supplement Per Pupil*
Sumter County	$ 62,928,491	.00188	$ 118,524	$ 68,155	$ 50,369	2,601	$19.37
Americus	58,816,405	.00323	190,532	74,290	116,242	2,926	39.73
Schley County	14,984,296	.00269	40,328	16,462	23,866	834	28.62
Consolidated System	**136,729,192**	**.00323**[2]	**441,635**	**158,907**	**282,728**	**6,361**	**44.45**
Laurens County	71,814,952	.00224	161,497	62,917	98,580	4,344	22.69
Dublin	65,873,659	.00197	130,387	99,227	31,160	3,598	8.66
Consolidated System	**137,688,611**	**.00224**[2]	**162,144**	**162,144**	**146,278**	**7,942**	**18.42**
Floyd County	223,562,035	.00413	924,563	283,221	641,342	7,882	81.37
Rome	148,394,901	.00565	839,602	277,287	562,315	6,944	80.98
Consolidated System	**371,956,936**	**.00413**[2]	**1,536,182**	**560,508**	**975,674**	**14,826**	**65.80**
Habersham County	61,904,506	.00202	125,485	81,263	44,222	4,170	10.60
Rabun County	33,972,497	.00304	103,479	72,683	30,796	1,992	15.46
Tallulah Falls	9,147,598	.00570	52,195	42,504	9,691	210	46.15
Consolidated System	**105,024,601**	**.00570**[2]	**598,640**	**196,450**	**402,190**	**6,372**	**63.12**
Glascock County	8,804,410	.00213	18,773	11,780	6,993	541	12.93
Hancock County	30,075,787	.00236	71,250	35,664	35,586	2,637	13.49
Taliaferro County	9,684,112	.00300	29,127	16,020	13,107	683	19.19
Warren County	24,117,917	.00249	60,065	35,118	24,947	1,582	15.77
Consolidated System	**72,682,226**	**.00300**[2]	**218,046**	**98,582**	**119,464**	**5,443**	**21.95**

[1] Ratio of Local Revenue Receipts for Maintenance and Operation to Estimated True Value of Taxable Property.

[2] Assuming local effort index for consolidated system to be the highest effort exerted by the component school system providing largest supplement per pupil.

component systems. The data in Table 22 are for the 1963-64 school year—the most recent date for which local revenue data are available. To determine if the data would be altered if made on the basis of the 1965-66 minimum foundation program requirements, an analysis was made by using the 1965-66 requirement for 1963-64 and by increasing the 1963-64 local revenue receipts by the amount of the local requirement increase. This assumes that local funds would be increased at least by the amount of the increase in minimum foundation program requirements, so that supplemental funds would not be reduced.

The findings of this analysis support those in Table 22. Therefore, it is the conclusion of the survey staff that numerous possibilities exist for reorganizing the Georgia school system into larger, more efficient administrative units without imposing an unfair burden on any taxpayer, while assuring the taxpayers that any increased financial effort for schools resulting from reorganization will result in improved services for the children and youth of their component school systems.

Variations in Bonded Indebtedness for Schools

The financial ability of the various Georgia school systems to provide additional school funds is conditioned to some extent by the debt service loads for schools carried by the taxpayers. The disposition of the liabilities of the component school systems may be an issue in any plan for school system reorganization. The bonded indebtedness of the component systems may either remain an obligation of the governmental unit incurring it or it may be transferred to the consolidated school system. This issue may be a vital one if great disparity exists in the amount of bonded indebtedness for schools among the component school systems. The disparity in bonded indebtedness can be reduced through state captial outlay fund distribution which recognizes both school housing needs and outstanding bonded indebtedness in computing the state allotments to local school systems. Nevertheless, reorganization will be facilitated if it involves component school systems with approximately equal burdens of bonded indebtedness for schools.

Table 23 shows the distribution of Georgia county and independent school systems on the basis of the amount of school bonded indebtedness outstanding per pupil in average daily attendance on June 30, 1964. Great extremes in bonded indebtedness exist among the State's school systems, but large numbers of school systems are grouped within rather narrow ranges on

TABLE 23

DISTRIBUTION OF GEORGIA COUNTY AND INDEPENDENT SCHOOL SYSTEMS BY THE AMOUNT OF SCHOOL BONDED INDEBTEDNESS PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE OUTSTANDING JUNE 30, 1964

School Bonded Indebtedness Per Pupil	*County School Systems*		*Independent School Systems*	
	Number	*Per Cent*	*Number*	*Per Cent*
None	26	16.4	5	13.5
$ 1—$ 50	28	17.6	5	13.5
$ 51—$100	42	26.4	12	32.5
$101—$150	30	18.9	1	2.7
$151—$200	14	8.8	6	16.2
$201—$250	5	3.1	2	5.4
$251—$300	4	2.5	2	100.0
$301—$350	6	3.8		
$351—$400	1	.6		
$401—$450			2	5.4
$451—$500	1	.6		
$501—$550			1	2.7
Above $600	2	1.3	1	2.7
Total	**159**	**100.0**	**37**	**100.0**

the basis of debt per pupil. Thus, there should be many possible combinations of school systems among which the disposition of bonded indebtedness liability should not be a vital issue in reorganization.

The nine test cases mentioned earlier support the above conclusion. For example, Sumter County, Americus city, and Schley County had no school bonds outstanding on June 30, 1964. Only $24,000 in school bonds were outstanding in Glascock, Hancock, Taliaferro, and Warren counties. The total for Calhoun, Clay, Quitman, and Randolph counties was only $148,000. In contrast, Floyd County's school bond indebtedness totaled $1,585,000, but this was about equally matched by Rome city's $1,382,000.

Effect of School System Reorganization on School Revenues

Consolidation of county and independent school systems in Georgia into larger administrative units should have a beneficial effect on total school revenues available. Where inequities exist, local school revenue increases should be mandated to equalize services. State funds accruing to the component school systems should not be adversely affected by consolidation. Provision is made for offsetting any such loss through use of the State's contingency fund provided for this purpose. In a few counties, consolidation could jeopardize the revenues now received from the federal government under Public Law 874. The federal statutes authorizing the payment of these funds to local school systems require that the number of school children connected with a federal installation must exceed a prescribed percentage of the total number of pupils in average daily attendance in the school system for the system to be eligible for federal assistance. The combination of a "federally-affected" school system with one or more school systems with few or no eligible pupils could reduce the percentage below the requirement. It is the opinion of the survey staff, however, that few of the school systems to be considered for reorganization are receiving funds under Public Law 874.

Per Pupil Cost in an Effectively Organized School System

The preceding discussions in this chapter have dealt with the economies to be expected in the consolidation of local school administrative units and the financial considerations of equalizing school services. This section is concerned with estimating the required current expenditures per pupil to achieve a quality program of education in a school system organized on the basis of the criteria proposed in this report. Various approaches can be taken to determine an estimated expenditure figure. No method is wholly objective or reliable. Consequently, any such estimate is only a rough measure of the financial input prerequisite to achieving a quality program.

The survey staff analyzed the 1963-64 expenditure patterns of school systems in the United States having approximately 10,000 pupils. The Cost of Education Index* makes the following estimates of net current expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance in school systems having between 6,000 and 12,000 pupils in 1963-64:

Percentile	*Expenditure Per Pupil*
10th	$223
25th	$278
50th	$375
75th	$428
90th	$543

These net current expenditure estimates do not include the cost

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*"The Cost of Education Index," *School Management*, January, 1965, p. 107.

of pupil transportation. An expenditure of $325 for net current expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance in a Georgia school system of 10,000 pupils would place the system at the mid-point of the second quartile of comparable school systems. This position would be only fairly competitive. To the $325 per pupils must be added an amount for pupil transportation. This would require a total expenditure per pupil of approximately $350 for all current operating expenses. Total revenue receipts for maintenance and operation of Georgia public schools in 1963-64 approximated $300 per pupil, with only 31.2 per cent of this amount coming from local sources. More revenue from local sources appears to be indicated. Can this be achieved locally without placing an unrealistic burden on Georgia citizens? The survey staff feels that it can. As is shown in Table 24, Georgia ranks third among the eleven southeastern states in personal income per capita. Using the percentage of total personal income paid by all citizens of the State for state and local government services as a measure of tax effort, Georgia ranks eighth among the eleven states. Georgia's total effort to support all governmental services is not commensurate with its ability. Georgia citizens should expect to provide more local funds in the support of public education.

TABLE 24

PER CAPITA PERSONAL INCOME AND GENERAL REVENUE OF STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS FROM OWN SOURCES FOR SELECTED STATES, 1962

	Per Capita Personal Income		*Per Cent State and Local Government Revenues are of Personal Income*	
State	*Amount*	*Rank*	*Per Cent*	*Rank*
Alabama	$1,567	8	8.3	10
Arkansas	1,504	10	9.4	4
Florida	2,044	1	9.6	3
Georgia	**1,759**	**3**	**8.6**	**8**
Kentucky	1,712	5	8.8	7
Louisiana	1,705	6	11.5	1
Mississippi	1,285	11	11.0	2
North Carolina	1,732	4	9.0	5
South Carolina	1,545	9	8.9	6
Tennessee	1,702	7	8.5	9
Virginia	2,018	2	7.4	11
U. S.	2,366		9.4	

Source: *Rankings of the States, 1964*, Research Division, National Education Association.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This survey has been conducted within prescribed limits and, therefore, is definitely limited in scope. The findings and conclusions must be based upon the reported facts and direct observations made within the bounds of the assignment. Nevertheless, the survey team has been well aware of significant background data which should also be known to the reader as one anticipates the future of public education in Georgia. A brief review now should help to place the conclusions and recommendations of the present study in proper perspective as a possible next step among some outstanding forward strides which have been made in education.

One can mark a century into three generations of about thirty-three years each. It was just a generation go, then, that President Roosevelt described the South as "the Nation's Number One economic problem." Georgia, understandably, was an element in this characterization, and its public school system was a good example. Within the brief span of one generation the State has made such remarkable progress that no informed person could make a comparable statement in 1965.

Among the significant milestones must be included the "seven-month school law" of 1937 on the heels of the Great Depression. The State Board of Education was established as a Constitutional Board of laymen in 1943. Also in this war year the state Teacher Retirement System was enacted, being implemented in 1945. The rewritten Constitution of 1945 established the county as the *basic* unit of school administration and support. In this stride, 1,257 local districts were abolished! The first Minimum Foundation Program in 1949, with revenues augmented by the 1951 sales tax program, really evolved from a comprehensive state survey which was conducted in 1946.

The scope of the present assignment does not authorize an analysis of the concurrent trends in financial effort that made possible these advances, or the succeeding progress reflected in the area vocational-technical area schools in the early 1960's, or even the statewide ETV system. Still, even outsiders must express admiration and excitement over "S.B. 180" and the new foundation program enacted by the General

Assembly, with the genuine encouragement of the citizens of Georgia and the courageous leadership of Governor Sanders' administration, the State Board of Education, and the State Superintendent.

Georgia literally has brought herself, steadily and voluntarily and deliberately, to a critical point. Justifiable pride might encourage indulgence in more of this backward look, "resting on the oars," and taking bearings on landmarks already passed. However, a future course cannot be charted by looking back at the wake or the contrails. The thrilling potential and promises of "S.B. 180," as yet unrealized, will not be gained by the progress of the 1932-1965 generation. The present study, while recognizing the laudable gains of recent years, was directed by the State to take bearings from her *present* position and to plot a *future* course based upon the new charts of the new foundation program. To do this one must look forward.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Georgia is a state whose network of smooth, all-weather roads renders obsolete the present geographical county structure. Probably the time has come when the State should be restructured toward the original county subdivisions before Greene was cut off of Washington or Jasper and then Newton were subdivided from Baldwin. The mechanization of agriculture, the expansion of tree farming, the "depopulizing" of many areas, the advances in communication and transportation, and other phenomena uniformly support this thesis. The Georgia county is no longer a suitable basis for planning local school system government.

2. Concentration during the past century and until now has been focused upon making *more* "schooling" available to every Georgia child. The survey staff believes this goal has been reached, and that any child who (with his parents) has reasonable ability, motivation, and ambition can now obtain twelve years of education of some sort. Factual data, however, show such disturbing varieties in the adequacy and quality of these educational opportunities that a shift in concentration or emphasis must be sought. This shift in emphasis must focus more attention upon *better* schooling and the school *system* which operates the educational program; for the system at the outset determines the adequacy and the quality of education within the local attendance center and the individual classroom. The Georgia Constitution and the supporting statutes establish

the present small county as the maximum area of a school system, and they should be changed.

3. The *Policies of the State Board of Education* have been carefully studied. They are basically sound, but cannot be executed adequately by local schools and school systems as presently constituted. Furthermore, Georgia school "standards" are based upon *minimums* rather than *desirable* goals. For example, the widely used "at least one teacher per grade" in elementary school has prompted genuine progress in rural areas, but it simply cannot provide for the best that is currently known in elementary school practices, nor can the similar standard of "at least 300 enrolled" in a secondary school. The Georgia data in this report clearly prove this conclusion beyond debate. Why, then, should not the *School Code,* Board Policies, and Accrediting Commission Standards formulate goals in terms of what *"ought to be"* in addition to what *"must be"?* Herein is to be found the key to the door of quality, and the expectations of the new MFPE! Adequacy and quality are not measured by the "least we can get by with."

4. The survey staff is well aware of the concurrent study of the "Standards Committee," and has attempted to avoid overlapping or interference in assignments. A rapid appraisal since April 21, 1965, indicates a high degree of harmony. However, the survey team feels it appropriate to cite the Florida effort to reorganize and encourage *"good, better,* and *best"* standards and criteria, and the requirement for *progress* as a basis for continued accreditation.

5. Georgia has officially acknowledged the inadequacies of its system of schools and school districts in at least two ways: the commendable "contract plan" under which one school unit contracts with another for at least twenty years for the education of specified grade groups; and the equally commendable Board policy under which students are authorized to cross "system lines to attend school." Yet, at least two conflicts or inconsistencies accompany these admissions: the definition of an "isolated school" which uses 100 and 125 as ADA limits in elementary and high schools; and the stipulation that the area vocational-technical schools "operated by existing local school authorities" should also serve students "who live within driveing distance, probably within a 50 mile radius." The inescapable conclusions are that: (1) in Georgia the "50 mile radius" is sensible; (2) such a criterion negates the definition of an "isolated" high school in guaranteeing one high school each to white

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and Negro pupils in every county; and (3) a school system *certainly* can be administered with efficiency, economy, and effectiveness over a *larger* geographical area than can be a single school center. Hence, the "50 mile radius" is asserted to be a functional or usable measure of minimum school system criteria.

6. The aspirations and potential of the new Foundation Program (S. B. 180) are not reflected in the draft of the proposed constitutional revision (Committee Substitute to H.R. 6-1) which, in Article 6, Section 5, Para. 1, authorizes each county to be a school system and approves *either* election *or* appointment of the superintendent at *local* option; and which, in Section 6, perpetuates "existing independent school systems." Interestingly, this same proposal provides for *area school systems* of two or more counties, "by general or local law," yet stipulates a majority vote in "each school district and school system affected" (Section 5, Para. 2.). Even Iowa has come to introduce a bill in the 1965 General Assembly which would amend the law to provide for a majority of votes cast in the area, rather than a majority in every local unit! Simultaneously, the proposed constitutional revision makes no provision for an interstate compact for border areas such as Florida authorizes, and Georgia has more border problem cases than Florida.

7. The Georgia Constitution and School Laws provide for an indefensible, hopeless method of designating local school system leadership, and thereby stymie the potential of the new foundation program. Article VIII, Section 6, Para. 1 provides for election of the County Superintendent by *popular vote* of the people, and Code Section 32-1004 establishes abysmally low qualifications. Concluding from the present laws and the proposed revisions, the increased requirements for competence in educational leadership are not understood statewide.

School boards traditionally and properly are made up of lay citizens, representative of the general public and school patrons, and consequently may properly be designated by popular vote of the public. A competent school superintendent, however, is a career professional administrator and leader, trained at advanced graduates level for his work, and possessing skills not measurable by popular vote of the general public.

To represent constituents in a school system, a lay board member properly should be a resident citizen of that system. Competent educational leadership, on the other hand, cannot be bounded by a school system, a county, or a state area. If the foundation program is to succeed, it will be through the efforts of professionally trained and competent leaders recruited for the task, and not through those from within the limits of a local school system who meet the popular fancy.

It may well be that the more able school leaders in the better school situations—where opportunities and services are those one would want for all children—are too passive in a "live and let live" manner. Thus, one would expect the most able superintendents in Georgia to be active, aggressive and vocal in demanding an upgrading of leadership and programs in the poorer school situations. Certainly the school laws now encourage a "laissez-faire" relationship among school leaders and school systems. The fate of the new foundation program probably rests upon a change in this fundamental concept of the superintendent's role.

8. The continued urbanization of America is factually illustrated in Georgia. Of the 18 counties included in the case studies, 15 lost population between 1940 and 1950, and 14 lost between 1950 and 1960. During these two decades, Taliaferro County lost 28.1 and 25.4 per cent of her total population, and Glascock County lost 21.3 and 25.3 per cent. Some counties lost and some gained in the percentage of nonwhites during these decades, so one must conclude that the demographic changes are more fundamental than just the migration of Negroes.

Among the seven cities included, only one (Hogansville) lost population between 1940 and 1950; and only two (LaGrange and Hogansville) lost population between 1950 and 1960. Per cent of gains averaged about 10 for Rome, 13 for West Point, 19 for Cartersville, 20 for Americus, and 33 for Dublin over each of these two decades.

The implication is that planning for future school systems should establish areas of administrative operations around population centers that are vigorous and growing, for here is where most of the future school population will live. This means that the larger towns, more densely populated counties, and expanding zones should be the headquarters or seats of modernized school governments and central staffs.